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# A Study of the Role of the Director of Financial Aid in His Own Institution in Selected Colleges and Universities in the Midwest

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A STUDY OF THE ROLE OF THE DIRECTOR OF FINANCIAL  
AID IN HIS OWN INSTITUTION IN SELECTED  
COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES  
IN THE MIDWEST

by

James F. Barry

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School of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial  
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## VITA

The author, James Francis Barry, is the son of James F. Barry and Vernetta (McGrath) Barry. He was born October 17, 1928, in Boston, Massachusetts.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Student financial aid has a long history in American higher education. It dates from the earliest days and is associated with the oldest colleges in America. Yet, despite that fact, it is still a new phenomenon in American higher education. Student financial aid has been linked with the noblest purposes of American higher education and at times has been used ignobly to serve the narrowest, most self-centered aims of American colleges. Student aid has often been the measure of the influence of the federal and state governments on higher education. As Frederick Rudolph has observed, "Student aid has been central to the history of the American college and university."<sup>1</sup>

A detailed history of the assistance that has been afforded to students in acquiring an education in the United States has not yet been written. Some source materials touch upon various aspects of that history. What evidence has been

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<sup>1</sup>Frederick Rudolph, "Myths and Realities of Student Aid," College Board Review, XLVIII (1962), 18.

accumulated shows that from the earliest days of higher education in the United States students have been the recipients of much help in paying for their education. The benefactors have been many and various, from interested philanthropists to the federal government itself. Private individuals of means, local clubs, businesses and industries, alumni, foundations, local, state, and the federal government, all have had a share in helping students to defray the cost of their higher education. Colleges and universities themselves have helped too in many different ways, making them "not so much an object of charity as a dispenser of charity, not so much the recipient of philanthropy as the transmitter of philanthropy and not so much the receiver of aid as the giver of aid."<sup>2</sup>

### THE EARLY HISTORY

The earliest record of financial aid in the United States was a gift of one hundred pounds sterling by Lady Anne (Radcliffe) Mowlson, after whom Radcliffe College was named. Her gift was given to Harvard College, founded in 1636, and dates from the earliest days of the College. Information about the gift was first received by the College in 1643. Its

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<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

purpose was "the yearly maintenance of some poor scholar."<sup>3</sup>

This contribution was typical of most of the early examples of financial aid, usually gifts by charitable benefactors to help poor students meet the cost of their education. Colleges in the pre-Civil War period struggled to attract students and felt increasing pressure to become more democratic. The curriculum was modeled upon the English residential college, an aristocratic tradition that became increasingly alien to the new democracy of the United States. To attract students and to make it possible for poor students to attend, the colleges tried a variety of schemes, most of which did not succeed.

The manual labor movement of the 1830's was one approach. It attempted to provide poor students with a method of financing their education as well as an opportunity to learn a skill. This movement often resulted, however, in farms operated at a loss or other financial disasters. The students at Marietta College and Ohio University produced so many wooden barrels

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<sup>3</sup>"Gift Aid in the United States," Scholarship, Beneficiary Aid and Loan Funds of Harvard College, Official Register of Harvard University, No. 11. (Mimeographed.)

that they glutted the market.<sup>4</sup>

So called "charity funds" set up in some schools to provide for the poorer students were also unsuccessful, as were the special dining halls for such students at the colleges of Yale, Princeton, and Brown.<sup>5</sup> These programs were much too condescending, emphasizing, as they did, the inferiority of the poor student.

In the period before the Civil War, two phenomena influenced the history of financial aid: the spread of religious denominations and the decline of classical education. The ambition and competitiveness of the church denominations produced many more colleges than were needed. The competition to attract students became a serious problem, heightened by the growing unpopularity of the classical curriculum. There were simply too many colleges and too few students who really saw any value in what the colleges had to offer.

The financial crises that resulted caused many colleges to go out of existence; but before the colleges vanished, they tried other methods of student aid. Tuition remission or

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<sup>4</sup>Op cit., Rudolph, p. 19.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid.



simply an accumulation of unpaid bills were means of keeping students in attendance. Underpayment and non-payment of faculty were others. The most bizarre method, however, and perhaps the most disastrous for the financial structure of the college, was the perpetual scholarship.<sup>6</sup> Usually, for five hundred dollars, a person was able to buy from the college, a so-called perpetual scholarship. This provided the holder of the scholarship with free tuition for one person in perpetuity. Many years later colleges were still saddled with these low cost scholarships.

These perpetual scholarships brought a new dimension into the history of financial aid. In addition to providing equal opportunity for a college education, student aid was being used as a recruitment tool, to keep the college from going out of existence.

Many other forms of financial aid were tried on a private basis. Williams College assigned one student to ring the college bell as a means of financing his education. A janitorial service helped another student at Denison College. At Dickinson College, two students operated a suit-pressing

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<sup>6</sup>Ibid.

business in their dormitory room and another a shoe repair shop.<sup>7</sup>

Not all the aid was so small and unorganized. Some societies established scholarships to help promote their purposes. The American Education Society of the Congregational Church started a scholarship program to help promising ministerial candidates. At Harvard College, Phi Beta Kappa set up a fund to help its poorer members and at Brown College, a society was formed to lend text books to poor students.<sup>8</sup>

This was the picture of student aid prior to the Civil War: small, private, philanthropic, and occasionally serving the selfish interests of colleges. After the Civil War, however, a new era began for student aid. The period of reform in higher education brought a different emphasis and a different type of financial aid.

The founding of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology signaled the beginning of the movement for technological and scientific education. The education of women started with the founding of Vassar College between 1861 and 1865. The

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<sup>7</sup>Ibid., p. 20.

<sup>8</sup>Ibid.

Johns Hopkins University introduced the idea of a graduate university and Charles William Eliot at Harvard College showed the way for curricular reform with his support of the elective system.<sup>9</sup>

The effect of these reforms was to make the American college no longer alien to democracy, but now more relevant to the needs of a newly expanding nation. Colleges became popular places.

By making the college popular, these developments placed a new burden on the tradition of student aid. For the increasing desirability of a college education argued forcefully for the maintenance of equality of access to that education.<sup>10</sup>

As important as were these new developments for the history of student aid, even more was the Morrill Federal Land Grant Act of 1862. This was the first significant step by the federal government into education. Federal funds through the sale of federal lands went directly into the hands of the States to be given, not to students, but to the colleges as a perpetual endowment. This provided education for many students at little or no cost. State supported education became

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<sup>9</sup>Frederick Rudolph, The American College and University, A History (New York: Random House, Inc., 1962), pp. 292-295.

<sup>10</sup>Rudolph, "Myths and Realities of Student Aid," op. cit., p. 20.

a growing part of the American scene. Many private schools found it difficult to compete.

By 1900, state legislatures had restricted their funds primarily to state-affiliated institutions of higher education. Private institutions were forced to depend on student fees and philanthropy. Many of the private colleges founded prior to the Civil War were forced to close.<sup>11</sup>

The tradition of student financial aid persisted in the private colleges after the Civil War years. Despite the fact that these colleges did not receive the benefit of support from public funds, they remained committed to helping poor students enroll along with those who could afford to pay their own way. The growing acceptance of the new college curriculum and the improving economic conditions of the post-Civil War years made shrinking enrollments a thing of the past for private colleges. The "charity funds" of the earlier nineteenth century expanded to sizeable endowments. Private colleges found themselves with a new problem, a large number of poor students attending college alongside rich students. The social disparity created by student aid was handled in a variety of ways by different colleges and with by no means complete

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<sup>11</sup>George Nash, "The History and Growth of Student Financial Aid," Journal of the National Association of College Admissions Counselors, XIII (November, 1968), 12.

success.

Dartmouth required scholarship students to pledge that they would not drink, smoke, dance, or play pool. At Emory so called 'helping halls' where students might live and eat with economy were developed in the 1880's. Princeton, undertaking a program of dormitory expansion, built one especially for poor boys. Yale in 1900 established a 'Bureau of Self-Help' in order to centralize job opportunities for poor but ambitious boys.<sup>12</sup>

One method of student self-help that did prove more successful and was more in line with the American ideal of the self-made man was the student loan. Here was a way for the poor boy to have equal access to educational opportunities and yet contribute to his own education as well. From the late nineteenth century until the present, loans have been an increasingly important part of student financial aid.

By 1900, student aid was a vital aspect of American higher education. No one approach was followed. Scholarships, loans, student employment, self-help dormitories, all these things helped poor students toward some measure of equal opportunity. Colleges and universities themselves were the principal benefactors.

In the late nineteenth century, however, began a less

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<sup>12</sup>Rudolph, "Myths and Realities of Student Aid," op. cit., p. 21.

glorious period in the history of student aid. The mania for inter-collegiate athletics gave rise to the athletic scholarship.

The athletic scholarship and all those open and hidden forms of assistance useful in the care and feeding of athletes were hardly consistent with the concern for opportunity, service, and serious academic purpose that characterized student aid at its best.<sup>13</sup>

While it was true that athletic scholarships provided an opportunity for a college education for many a boy who otherwise would not have attended college, this was not the primary purpose of such scholarships. It was, and in some schools still is, a form of student aid meant to enhance the fame, national recognition, and reputation of the institution. The spending of large sums of institutional funds for these scholarships is often justified for reasons that are institution-centered, not student-centered. While athletic scholarships in many schools are now given according to the financial need of the recipient, this is only a recent development. For many years, these scholarships were given to the student athlete regardless of whether or not he had the ability to pay for his education.

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<sup>13</sup>Ibid., p. 22.

## THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AND STUDENT AID

The history of the relationship between the federal government and higher education is a long and involved one. It is, however, intimately connected with the history of student aid. Both the students and the institutions have benefited from the federal government's interest in higher education. Students have received help in paying for their education. Institutions, among other benefits, have enjoyed increased enrollments. The federal government, however, has benefited as well in many ways. The government early realized that it best served its own interests by encouraging and fostering higher education.

Despite the fact that the United States Constitution gives the federal government no specific power to exercise authority over education in the states, influence has been exercised from the earliest days of the Republic until the present. As a matter of fact, that influence has constantly grown. The belief has been that it is in the national interest for the federal government to support higher education. That belief still remains strong, despite the fact that billions of federal dollars are now needed to support it.

The first examples of federal support of higher education were donations of land. Early wealth was principally in the form of land and, thus, the first federal gifts to higher education were grants of land for colleges. The first such grants were given to the Ohio and Scioto Companies in 1787 to be used in the new western states. Thirty-one states, in all, received such grants of land for the founding of colleges. Constitutional authority for these grants was based "on the 'general welfare' clause of the Constitution and the right of the federal government to dispose of its own property as it saw fit."<sup>14</sup>

Despite this direct support of higher education, no attempt was made by the federal government to control the type of education given. The federal government did not dictate to the colleges what courses they should teach, how they should be taught, or what textbooks they should use. This is not to say, however, that no influence was exercised. Beginning with the Morrill Land Grant Act of 1862 and continuing until the later decades of the nineteenth century, land was

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<sup>14</sup>John S. Brubacher and Willis Rudy, Higher Education in Transition, A History of American Colleges and Universities, 1636-1968 (2nd ed.; New York: Harper and Row, 1968), p. 466.



given to the states by the federal government. It was given, however, for specific purposes. Education was seen as the means of solving national problems. Thus, the Morrill Act was a means of stimulating certain types of education in the states in order to improve the country as a whole. Training in agriculture and the mechanic arts was the purpose of the Morrill Act, but the precedent it established was even more important than the stimulation it gave to education in 1862.

The Morrill Act was significant because it initiated the practice of using federal grants-in-aid to achieve certain specific objectives desired by the federal government. This was to prove a powerful weapon during subsequent years in developing various federally controlled programs to improve the 'general welfare.'<sup>15</sup>

The pattern established by the Morrill Act was followed for many years. The Hatch Act of 1887 had as its purpose to develop agricultural research. In 1914, the Smith-Lever Act supported university extension and the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 was meant to encourage vocational education. By 1930, federal funds for higher education amounted to twenty-three million dollars a year.

This kind of assistance to higher education was, of course, given directly to the states or to public institutions

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<sup>15</sup>Ibid., p. 234.

through the states. Federal funds given directly to students did not begin significantly until the 1930's, even though there were two earlier precedents for this approach. Some states gave free tuition to Civil War veterans at state universities after the Civil War. Again, when the United States entered World War I, the Reserve Officer Training Corps was set up in several colleges during the 1917-1918 academic year. Students received only small amounts of money from this program, however. Then, in 1933 began the first major program of federal assistance directly to students. This was, again, a significant departure because here, for the first time, federal funds went to private institutions as well as public. Although students were the recipients, the institutions, both public and private, disbursed the funds and then, in most cases, the students paid the money back to the institutions in the form of tuition.

In 1933, the Federal Emergency Relief Administration started a program of assistance to students called the Student Work Program. This enabled students to attend college by providing them with a job. The chief motivation on the part of the federal government for this program was not to give aid to college students, but to alleviate the economic conditions

created by the great depression of the 1930's.

In 1935, the National Youth Administration took over the Student Work Program and between that time and 1943, over ninety-three million dollars of federal funds were spent on 620,000 students. Clearly, the federal government was in the business of supporting students.

In 1941, the United States entered World War II. Student financial aid has profited immensely from war and World War II was the best example of that. Assistance to students took a gigantic leap forward as a direct result of World War II.

The beginnings of the new era in student aid were modest enough, but significant. In 1942, a small program began that was to have a great influence on later federal programs. For the first time, federal loans were offered to students in college. The program was called Student War Loans and it lasted until 1944. In all, approximately 11,000 students in technical and scientific fields were given loans amounting to a total of three million dollars. The conditions attached to the loans specified that loan recipients must accept war-related employment after graduation. Although the

program was modest by today's standards, it did show that students would accept loans as a means of financing their education.

The Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944, commonly referred to as the G. I. Bill of Rights, was the next great milestone in the history of student financial aid. In 1944, it provided, for every veteran who had served a minimum amount of time in the Armed Forces, up to one year of education. Then, shortly after the War, Congress considerably broadened the provisions of the law to allow veterans to attend any approved institution for a period of years equal to the amount of time they had spent in the service plus the year authorized by the original law. The total amount of allowable time was forty-eight calendar months.

When one considers the large number of World War II veterans eligible for these benefits, it is clear that this was an enormous boost to higher education. How enormous it was is evident from the following summary:

By the Fiscal Year 1950 the Federal government had paid almost \$4 billion to or for students in higher education and of this amount more than \$1 billion had gone to colleges and universities for tuition and fees. In 1947 and 1948 Veterans Administration payments to institutions represented about one-half of all student fees and about

one-quarter of all educational and general income.<sup>16</sup>

In 1952, when the G. I. Bill was extended to veterans of the Korean Conflict, some changes were made. Direct payments to institutions, which were part of the old Bill, were now dropped and veterans were given monthly payments, adjusted to the number of their dependents.<sup>17</sup> This was a significant change for institutions of higher education. It ended the great boom years between 1946 and 1952 when enrollments had skyrocketed.

The G. I. Bill was obviously motivated by national concern over a specific problem, namely, the welfare of veterans. It constituted one part of a great complex of veterans' benefit legislation which had, by this time, become traditional in American politics. It definitely did not signify a final and purposeful national commitment to the principle of continuing federal aid for all deserving college students, non-veteran as well as veteran. The same observations could be made with respect to Public Law 550 of 1952, passed to aid the veterans of the Korean War. Yet, taken together, these two acts represented the largest scholarship grant to that point in the history of American higher education. Billions of federal dollars were spent on the higher education of millions of veterans.<sup>18</sup>

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<sup>16</sup>Nash, op. cit., p. 13.

<sup>17</sup>This approach is still taken with Vietnam veterans. It is important to note, therefore, that they do not receive proportionally as much in benefits as did World War II veterans in dollar value. Thus, World War II veterans remain the highest rewarded of any veterans based on government aid to higher education.

<sup>18</sup>Brubacher and Rudy, op. cit., p. 236.

Soon after World War II, pressures were put upon the federal government to expand its aid to higher education. Although the federal government's assistance was far beyond the wildest imaginings of the early supporters of federal aid, strong opinion now pushed for even greater assistance. Direct assistance to colleges and universities was sought. Economic factors were largely responsible for this pressure. Colleges and universities had to expand their facilities to accommodate their increasing enrollments and, in addition to this, the costs of higher education began a steady upward climb. It became increasingly difficult for institutions of higher education to manage their budgets.

In 1946, President Truman appointed a commission of twenty-eight distinguished citizens to study the country's system of higher education, with special emphasis on the social role of higher education. The commission was headed by George F. Zook who was then president of the American Council on Education. The commission's report was published in six volumes between the later part of 1947 and the early months of 1948 under the title "Higher Education for American Democracy."

The Zook Commission Report gave impetus to the push for an increase in federal support for higher education. More

important than that, however, the Zook Commission Report gave strong voice for equality of educational opportunity. It urged that all barriers to educational opportunity be immediately abolished and, to make a start toward that goal, that a federal scholarship program be established for at least twenty per cent of all undergraduate non-veteran students.

Again, in 1956, another group was appointed to study higher education. President Eisenhower designated Devereaux C. Josephs, the Chairman of the Board of New York Life Insurance, to head the Committee on Education Beyond High School. This committee went on record as opposed to the scholarship program recommended by the Zook Commission. It supported a work-study program, some assistance for teachers, and better coordination of all the federal programs concerned with higher education.<sup>19</sup>

The Josephs Committee's recommendations might have gone unheeded as had those of the Zook Commission, however, had it not been for a single incident of international importance. In 1957, Russia's ascendancy in the race for space became apparent with the launching of Sputnik I. Suddenly higher

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<sup>19</sup>Nash, op. cit., p. 14.

education became a national priority of immense importance. The educational system of the United States was seen as deficient because it had not produced the technological expertise necessary to beat the Russians into space. Since Russia, by 1958, was the acknowledged threat to United States world supremacy, this gave the accomplishment a definite military significance. Something had to be done to improve the quality of higher education. This meant more and better teachers. Something also had to be done to turn out more scientists. The federal government was looked to for the solution, for here was a problem of national importance involving the very survival of the nation. The view expressed in 1961 by one author illustrates succinctly why the next major federal higher education program followed so closely upon the heels of Russia's entry into the space race.

However, the most important reason for reconsidering the role of the federal government in financing higher education is the now widespread, yet comparatively recent, realization of how important higher education is to national economic and military strength. Both our military capacity and the economic growth on which it partly depends have become vitally linked to rapid advances in research, and to the availability of highly trained manpower to carry out the research and to utilize the results. This clearly makes higher education a major national concern.<sup>20</sup>

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<sup>20</sup> Alice M. Rivlin, The Role of the Federal Government in Financing Higher Education (Washington, D. C.: The Brookings Institution, 1961), p. 8.



It was the concern for national defense that resulted in the next important federal student aid program. In 1958, Congress passed and the President signed into law the National Defense Education Act. The Act established the first important federal loan program, which later came to be called the National Defense Student Loan Program. Long-term low interest loans were offered to students to help finance their college education. Particular incentives were offered those who intended to teach in elementary or secondary schools, in that part of their loans could be cancelled when they began to teach. Originally, the loans were offered especially to those students who were planning to enter the teaching or scientific fields. Thus, the Act was intended principally to make up for the serious deficiencies in the educational system of the country and to produce more technological expertise. It incorporated some of the recommendations of the Josephs Committee and responded to the national sense of emergency present at the time.

The National Defense Student Loan Program has been a well used program by colleges and universities.<sup>21</sup> It continues

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<sup>21</sup>Nash, op cit., p. 14.

to exist today as an important part of the federal student aid program. The original provisions of the Act were broadened to include all students with financial need, regardless of what field of study they intended to pursue. Most of the cancellation clauses benefiting teachers were still part of the program until very recently, long after national conditions that demanded these clauses had vanished. The loan funds are administered by the institutions, with ninety per cent of the funds coming from the federal government and the other ten per cent from the institution administering the loans. Institutions have much freedom in the administration of the funds. They may select the recipients of the loans, provided they do so within the guidelines set by the federal government. Loans are repaid by students to the institutions which may then, in turn, relend that money to other students. The loan fund is intended to become completely revolving, with eventually a large enough fund to make additional appropriations by the government unnecessary. This part of the plan has not as yet materialized, due in large part to the cancellation clauses for teaching.

In 1964, President Lyndon B. Johnson signed into law the Economic Opportunity Act. This was part of his War on

Poverty. A section of that Act was another important federal program of aid to college students. The College Work-Study Program was by no means a new idea. Its predecessor was the National Youth Administration work program of the 1930's. This new work-study program was much more ambitious, however. It sought "to expand part-time employment opportunities for students, particularly those from low-income families, who are in need of the earnings from part-time employment in order to pursue a course of study at an eligible institution."<sup>22</sup>

The Work-Study Program had been a suggestion of the Josephs Committee in 1957, but certainly the concept was not new. Providing students with jobs to finance their college education has a long history in higher education. Here, however, was a massive program of federal funds designed to help, first the neediest students who had no other resources, then in 1965, when the program was broadened, to help all students with financial need.

As in the National Defense Student Loan Program, federal funds were given directly to the colleges and universities

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<sup>22</sup>U. S., Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, College Work-Study Program Manual (Revised edition; Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1972), Part I, Chapter I, No. 102: Purpose of Program.

and they were free to assign the jobs to students of their choosing within the federal guidelines. Seventy-five per cent of the total funds came from the government with the institutions providing the other twenty-five per cent. Jobs could be provided for students working either at the institution itself or off-campus in agencies operating on a non-profit basis.

In 1965, the third major program of federal student aid came into being. The Higher Education Act of 1965 was the parent of the Educational Opportunity Grant Program. A federal grant or scholarship program had a history of being controversial. The Zook Commission, in 1947, had recommended a federal scholarship program. The Josephs Committee a few years later had argued against it. In 1965, however, there were pressing social issues: civil rights, poverty. Those who could not afford higher education, which became increasingly more and more the right of every citizen, had to be given the opportunity for such an education.

The Educational Opportunity Grant Program provided federal funds, as in the other two federal programs, directly to the institutions of higher education. Grants were then to be given by the institutions to the exceptionally needy

students.

The purpose of the program is to provide Educational Opportunity Grants to students of exceptional financial need who, for the lack of financial means of their own or of their family, would be unable to enter or remain in an institution of higher education without such assistance.<sup>23</sup>

The term "exceptional financial need" was, and still continues to be, an important term in the Educational Opportunity Grant Program. Students having that kind of need and only those students were to be the recipients of the federal grants. The grants, at first 800 dollars a year, were later increased to 1,000 dollars. In addition, the program specified that an amount of money in financial aid matching the amount of the Educational Opportunity Grant was to be provided the student. This student, however, was to be of a special type.

The essential criterion of student eligibility for an Educational Opportunity Grant is that a student is of exceptional financial need. That phrase refers to something more than a definite set of income characteristics. It refers to a person whose financial circumstances have created such a restricted environment that higher education does not seem to be a realistic possibility.<sup>24</sup>

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<sup>23</sup>U. S., Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Educational Opportunity Grant Program Manual (Revised edition; Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1971), Part I, Chapter 1, No. 102.

<sup>24</sup>Ibid., Part II, Chapter 4, No. 402, F.

The recipient of an Educational Opportunity Grant is further defined.

For a student to have exceptional financial need he must come from a family which has historically had insufficient resources for a modest or adequate living, let alone money to finance education beyond high school.<sup>25</sup>

These three programs, the National Defense Student Loan Program, the College Work-Study Program, and the Educational Opportunity Grant Program are the most extensive and most heavily funded federal programs of student aid in American history. All operate essentially the same way. Funds are given directly to the institutions of higher education. In accordance with the directions set down by the government, the funds are given to eligible students selected by the institutions themselves.

While these are the major programs of federal student aid, they are by no means the only programs now existing. Students attending college full-time may be eligible for federal Social Security Benefits, provided they are the sons or daughters of retired, disabled, or deceased workers. These benefits apply to them up to the age of twenty-two, if

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<sup>25</sup>Ibid., Part II, Chapter 5, No. 502.

they remain unmarried. In some cases, Veterans Benefits in the form of financial assistance for college are available for children of deceased or disabled veterans of World Wars I and II and the Korean Conflict.

The Higher Education Act of 1965, that brought into existence the Educational Opportunity Grant Program, also introduced the Guaranteed Loan Program. This program has been one of growing importance. It has provided important supplementary help for needy students and a way for students from middle-income families to be able to afford the escalating costs of higher education.

The legislation authorized banks to provide educational loans to full-time students at low interest rates and with long-term repayment provisions. The federal government promised to guarantee the loans to the banks. In most cases, the government contracts to pay the interest on the loan while the student is continuing his education. After his education is completed, the student repays the loan to the bank on a stated repayment schedule and at a fixed rate of interest.

In the Spring of 1969, another form of federal assistance to students was introduced by the Omnibus Crime Control

and Safe Streets Act of 1968 and later amended by the Omnibus Crime Control Act of 1970. The Law Enforcement Education Program or LEEP, as it is commonly called, makes tuition assistance available for students intending to enter the criminal justice field or for law enforcement officers who wish to attend college on a part-time basis, while continuing to work.

LEEP is a program intended to develop professional law enforcement officers through higher education. LEEP provides educational opportunity through financial aid and is directed to students having the ability and desire to provide professional performance in the criminal justice system.<sup>26</sup>

Finally, in 1969, the Public Health Service Act was passed establishing an important program of federal assistance for nursing students and students in other health-related professions. The Nurse Training Act of 1971 later extended and broadened the program. It is both a scholarship and a loan program.

The goal (of the program) is to increase the health manpower resources of the nation by providing financial assistance in the form of long-term, low interest loans to students in need who have been accepted for enrollment, or are already enrolled, in specified health

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<sup>26</sup>U. S., Department of Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, Office of Academic Assistance, Law Enforcement Education Program Manual (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, n.d.), Chapter 2, p. 1.



professions schools and in programs of nursing education to enable them to pursue their courses of study; and by providing scholarships to students of exceptional financial need who need such assistance to pursue the specified studies.<sup>27</sup>

The Nursing and Health Professions Assistance Program is an extensive and growing program. It is intended to relieve the national shortage of nurses and other medical personnel, an example again of the federal government instituting a student aid program to correct or alleviate a national emergency. The health professions students eligible for this assistance include those studying: medicine, dentistry, osteopathy, optometry, pharmacy, podiatry, veterinary medicine, as well as nursing.

Legislation covering the three major federal student aid programs, the National Defense Student Loan Program, the College Work-Study Program, and the Educational Opportunity Grant Program, came to an end during the summer of 1972. During that summer, however, Congress passed the Educational

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<sup>27</sup>U. S., Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, National Institutes of Health, Bureau of Manpower Education, Health Professions and Nursing Student Loan and Scholarship Programs: Manual of Information, Policies, and Procedures (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1970), Chapter 1, No. 20, p. 2.

Amendments of 1972, an important milestone in the history of student financial aid. The new legislation attempted more than ever before, to do what had been recommended in 1948 by the Zook Commission: to break all the economic barriers to higher education. It is to date the most ambitious attempt on the part of the federal government to make it possible for every citizen, regardless of his economic background, to attend the college or university of his choice. Unlike past federal programs which were introduced to solve specific national problems, higher education for all is the purpose of this new legislation.

The new legislation introduced by the Educational Amendments of 1972 is comprehensive and varied.<sup>28</sup> It extends until the fiscal year 1975 the three major federal programs of student aid, the National Defense Student Loan Program, the College Work-Study Program, and the Educational Opportunity Grant Program. It makes half-time students now eligible for all federal programs of aid. Prior to this, students had to be attending school on a full-time basis to be eligible for

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<sup>28</sup>Information in this section is taken from an unpublished memorandum of June 29, 1972, by Wallace H. Douma, former president of the Midwest Association of Student Financial Aid Administrators.

most federal programs. The Law Enforcement Education Program has been available for some part-time students and the Nurse Training Act of 1971 extended assistance to nursing and other health professions students who attend college part-time.

In addition to broadening the eligibility of the federal programs, the new legislation makes some other changes in those programs. The changes do not alter the essential nature of the three programs. More importantly, however, the Educational Amendments of 1972 introduce several new programs, programs that will undoubtedly play an important role in the future of higher education in the United States.

The first of these new programs introduced in 1972 was the Basic Opportunity Grant Program, a distinctly new approach to student aid. This program is open to all students, not only those of exceptional need. It entitles each student to a definite amount of money, in the form of a grant, from the federal government. The amount of his grant is determined by how much money his family can afford to contribute to his education, if anything. For students from families unable to contribute any money, as determined by a federally approved need analysis system, an entitlement of 1400 dollars is authorized by this new legislation, provided, however, that the

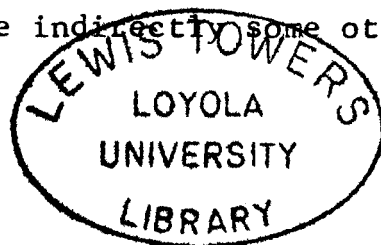
amount of the grant does not exceed one-half the student's college cost. For students whose family contribution is more than nothing, but less than 1400 dollars, the amount of the grant is determined by subtracting the family contribution from 1400.

The Educational Amendments of 1972 also established a program of matching grants to states which start or substantially increase their state scholarship and grant programs. This is an incentive program designed to encourage states to create new programs of student aid or expand existing programs. Federal funds cannot be used by the states to replace their own funds.

Most revolutionary of all, however, are two provisions of the new legislation providing direct federal grants to institutions of higher education. The first is meant to encourage the enrollment of veterans. The growing number of returning Vietnam veterans poses a national problem. As a partial solution, institutions will be encouraged to increase their enrollments of veterans. The new legislation authorizes the federal government to grant institutions 300 dollars for each veteran who is enrolled as an undergraduate and is receiving federal aid either under the G. I. Bill or the Vocational

Rehabilitation Program. An additional 150 dollars can be received for each veteran in a special or remedial program. Fifty per cent of the money received by the institution under this veterans' program must be used to establish a full-time office of veterans' affairs at the institution and to implement special outreach, recruitment, and counseling programs for veterans.

While this new veterans' program can be seen as an attempt again on the part of the federal government to solve a national problem, it is a most unique solution because it marks the beginning of a program of direct aid to institutions of higher education by the federal government; and these institutions can be either public or private. Far more unique, however, and more revolutionary is another provision of the new legislation. It provides direct institutional aid based on a formula tied in to the number of students at the institution receiving assistance through the three major federal programs, the number of students aided by the new Basic Opportunity Grant Program, and the number of graduate students. Here is a program of federal assistance designed to help the institutions themselves. It is not a program, as all federal programs have been in the past, to solve indirectly some other



problem not directly connected with education. It apparently is designed to help institutions out of their own financial difficulties. Although all of the federal student aid programs in the past have also indirectly helped the institutions themselves, this was not their direct purpose. Now, for the first time in the history of the United States, a federal program will directly help institutions of higher education.

#### STATE GOVERNMENTS AND STUDENT AID

Federal assistance to students has had a long and varied history. It is but one part of the picture. State governments have also contributed to the support of students in higher education and the history of state assistance is, in fact, longer than the history of federal support. From the earliest colonial days, colonial and later state governments exhibited concern for needy students. Several examples of this concern are recorded.

As early as 1647 President Dunster of Harvard suggested to the Commissioners of the United Colonies of New England that they establish scholarships valued at 8 pounds per year and fellowships valued at 16 pounds per year for students at Harvard. The Commissioners agreed to establish fellowships valued at 20 pounds per year at Harvard in 1653. Later, in 1792, the legislature of Massachusetts granted Harvard an annuity of 300 pounds per year for the loss of income from the Charlestown Ferry when the West Boston Bridge was built. A proviso was added to the act authorizing the annuity which required that the 300 pounds

per year should be used to defray the cost of tuition for indigent scholars or such other purposes as the Corporation deemed best. Another example of the benevolence of Massachusetts toward indigent students occurred in 1814 when Harvard, Bowdoin, and Williams were granted the proceeds from the Bank Tax of 1814. The legislature of Massachusetts directed that one-fourth of each institution's share of the tax should be applied to reduce tuition fees for students, not to exceed 50 students in any one class. Between 1814 and 1824, \$25,000 was obtained from the Bank Tax of 1814 of which slightly over \$6,000 was used for scholarship purposes.<sup>29</sup>

The early state scholarship programs were designed more to aid institutions of higher education rather than students.<sup>30</sup> After the middle of the nineteenth century, however, some states began attempts at establishing scholarship programs that would enable students to use the assistance at any institution, public or private, in the state. Massachusetts tried such a program in 1853, funding forty-eight scholarships of 100 dollars apiece, useable at any college in the state. This program only lasted seven years.

It was not until 1913 that the modern state scholarship program began with the State of New York. This was the first

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<sup>29</sup>Thomas R. Giddens, "The Origins of State Scholarship Programs: 1647-1913," College and University, XLVI (Fall, 1970), 39.

<sup>30</sup>Ibid., p. 40.

attempt by any state to establish a program of scholarships for superior high school students. It was a competitive scholarship program. Winners were selected by the Board of Regents, at first on the basis of high school rank, later by a competitive examination.

In the academic year 1970-1971, twenty states had scholarship programs for their residents. Most of these programs began in the mid-1950's. While some programs continue to be academically competitive, all programs grant monetary assistance to students on the basis of financial need. Most states restrict the use of monetary assistance to institutions within their own boundaries. Only Pennsylvania and New Jersey are exceptions to this. In terms of the amount of money funded for these programs, most programs are small. Fourteen of the twenty states, having scholarship programs in 1970-1971, had programs funded at less than ten million dollars. Only California, Illinois, Michigan, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania had programs funded over ten million dollars. These six states accounted for over eighty-five per cent of the almost 230 million dollars spent by all the states during the 1970-1971 academic year. New York had the largest program,



over sixty-five million dollars.<sup>31</sup>

### THE FINANCIAL AID DIRECTOR

As this brief survey has shown, student financial aid in American higher education has had a long history. In this history there is one event, the passage of the National Defense Education Act in 1958, that stands out as crucial. It ushered in the modern era of student financial aid. With that Act, began the serious involvement of the federal government in higher education and from that time on the number of programs of student financial aid began to multiply. A new expertise was then demanded on the college campus. No longer could financial aid be handled informally. In addition, institutions in the post-Sputnik era were growing rapidly and becoming much more complex.

A few decades ago when colleges were small and funds were modest, systems for granting student aid were casual. Deans, department chairmen, and professors made awards on the basis of subjective evaluation of student candidates; administration was leisurely; and coordination of awards was effected informally. As institutions grew in size and complexity, the informality and intimacy

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<sup>31</sup>Illinois State Scholarship Commission, Report (Deerfield, Illinois: Illinois State Scholarship Commission, 1971), p. 59.

declined.<sup>32</sup>

After 1958, most institutions, except very small ones, felt the need to coordinate the administration of their financial aid programs under one office. A new administrator began to appear on the college campus, the director of financial aid. His function was to administer all student financial aid programs at his institution. As a new type of student service administrator, most institutions soon aligned him under the chief student personnel administrator.

There is no accurate record of which institution appointed the first aid director. During the summer of 1959, however, when National Defense Student Loan funds became available, several of the larger schools found themselves with thousands of dollars of loan funds and appointed directors of financial aid to administer these funds. The situation at Michigan State University was typical. Prior to 1959, the University had a Scholarship Office administered under the Dean of Men and the Dean of Women. On July 1, 1959, Henry Dykema was named as the University's first director of

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<sup>32</sup>Homer D. Babbidge, Jr., Student Financial Aid: Manual for Colleges and Universities (Washington, D. C.: American College Personnel Association, 1960), p. 5.

financial aid.<sup>33</sup>

In the years since 1959, the responsibilities of the financial aid director have grown enormously. As financial aid programs have multiplied, so have the dollars spent on student assistance. In many institutions, the financial aid director now controls an expense budget for his institution that is second in size only to that of instructional services. What he does or does not do can now have a significant effect on his institution. With the wide variety of federal aid programs and state programs, the aid director must have at his fingertips an ever-increasing array of complex information. In addition, his service is one of great importance to students. Like other student personnel administrators, he must have the skills of knowing how to deal with students, how to listen effectively to their concerns, and how to solve problems where possible or refer them to others when this is necessary.

The position of financial aid director is new on many campuses. Typically, the financial aid director has a lower salary than his fellow administrators. Perhaps, this is a

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<sup>33</sup>Henry Dykema, telephone interview, February, 1973.

reflection of his newness in the administrative structure. National statistics for 1971-1972 reported by the American Association of University Professors show that only campus bookstore managers are less compensated than financial aid directors among forty-six different academic administrators.<sup>34</sup>

There are indications, however, that the financial aid profession is coming of age. Aid directors have formed their own state and regional organizations and, most recently, their own national organization. The first formal regional organization began in the Midwest. Its informal history traces back to the early 1950's, when scholarship directors at the Big Ten institutions met regularly to discuss their mutual concerns. Then scholarship directors of the Big Eight schools asked to be included in the meetings. In 1961, the group became more formalized and opened itself to other Midwest institutions, and the Midwest Association of Student Financial Aid Administrators came into existence. George Risty of the University of Minnesota was elected MASFAA's first president.

Other areas of the country followed the Midwest's example and formed regional associations. In 1968, the

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<sup>34</sup>"Salaries of College Administrators, 1971-1972," The Chronicle of Higher Education, June 5, 1972, p. 3.

regional associations united to form the National Association of Student Financial Aid Administrators. Membership in a regional organization entitles one to membership in the national organization.

The professionalization of the aid director has had its effect on higher education in general. The Educational Amendments Act of 1972 was influenced by financial aid directors from all parts of the country. Aid directors through their organizations continue to lobby in Congress for better legislation and more funding for federal financial aid programs. In a nationwide television broadcast, January 3, 1974, several financial aid directors were interviewed and made public their current concerns about the growing number of students who need financial assistance in order to attend college and the inadequacies of present funding.<sup>35</sup>

Finally, the growing professionalization of the field is shown by the increased concern for the education of financial aid directors. All the regional organizations have taken steps to improve the training of aid directors and to help them keep up with the ever-changing demands of their

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<sup>35</sup>"The College Money Crunch," N.B.C. telecast, January 3, 1974. Narrator, Edwin Newman.

field. Seminars and work-shops introduce new aid officers to the financial aid profession and they also serve to keep experienced aid directors informed about the new developments in the field.

#### STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

There is much need for research in the financial aid field. This study attempts to fill some of that need by re-searching the financial aid director's place in his own institution. It examines how the financial aid director fits into the administrative structure of his institution, how much he is compensated, whether or not he has faculty rank and/or tenure, to what extent he is involved in institutional policy relating to both financial aid and other institutional matters. This study also attempts to analyze certain characteristics of those directors of financial aid holding an important position in their own institution.

#### DELIMITATIONS

Although the need for research on financial aid is great, practical considerations necessitate certain delimitations of this study. Only the director of financial aid at each institution was the object of this study. Not all those

individuals who assist the director or otherwise work in financial aid at a given institution were investigated. This study is further limited in the types of institutions studied. Only those institutions granting the baccalaureate degree were considered part of the investigation. That included colleges and universities granting either the baccalaureate degree or baccalaureate degree and some graduate or professional degree. Excluded from the study were all two-year or junior colleges and purely graduate or professional degree granting institutions.

Junior colleges were excluded because it was difficult or almost impossible to find a common set of criteria by which to judge the importance of the financial aid director in his institution that would apply to both two-year institutions and four-year colleges or universities. Purely graduate or professional schools were excluded because most often these institutions do not have a director of financial aid. Their students are not eligible for the wide variety of assistance that is available for undergraduates and, therefore, the need for one person on the staff whose exclusive or major responsibility it is to administer the aid programs does not exist at these institutions. What student aid is available at purely

graduate or professional schools will typically be administered by the dean or one of his assistants.

Practical considerations also dictated that this study be limited to selected colleges and universities located in the eleven states that make up the Midwest Association of Student Financial Aid Administrators. These states include: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Ohio, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.

#### DEFINITIONS

The following descriptive definitions will explain the meaning of terms commonly used in this study.

student financial aid - Assistance made available to students in order to help them pursue either a full time or part-time course of studies. That assistance may be in the form of a scholarship, grant-in-aid, tuition and/or fee waiver, long-term or short-term loan, opportunity for employment, or any combination of the above.

director of financial aid - The person who is directly responsible for the administration of the student financial aid program at any given institution of



higher education.

financial aid office - The office in the institution of higher education that is directly responsible for the awarding of financial aid and for providing students with financial aid counseling.

scholarships - Forms of financial aid for students that do not require repayment. A scholarship is awarded because of a student's performance (or potential for performance) in the academic program of the institution. The award and/or the amount of the award may or may not be based upon the financial need of the recipient.

grants-in-aid - Forms of financial aid that also do not require repayment, given to students who are believed to be capable of meeting the academic requirements of the institution. Most commonly grants-in-aid are given according to the financial need of the recipient. They may, however, be given for other considerations, such as the specific talents of the recipients sought or valued by the institution.

tuition and/or fee waivers - An agreement on the part of the institution not to charge the student recipients tuition and/or fees. These may be granted as a form of financial aid for needy students or for other considerations.

long-term loans - Forms of financial aid that require repayment on the part of the recipients. Either all or part of the amount borrowed must be repaid at some designated future time, usually beginning after graduation or withdrawal from the institution.

short-term loans - Forms of financial aid that require repayment on the part of the recipients, generally within the academic semester or year the loan is advanced.

opportunity for employment - A form of financial aid in which the institution makes a job available for the student to help him defray at least a part of the cost of his education. These jobs may be either on the campus or off, during the regular school year or during vacation periods.

## SUMMARY

Student financial aid in American higher education has had a long and varied history. Early examples of student financial aid were usually charitable benefactions for poor students. In the pre-Civil War period when colleges began to proliferate and competition for students was great, student aid was often a device for recruiting students. Colleges and universities, particularly private institutions, retained the tradition, despite the difficulties, of aiding poor students in paying for their education.

The Land Grant Act of 1862, when federal land was given to states for the founding of state colleges, marked the beginning of the federal government's serious involvement in higher education. It was not until 1933, however, with the Student Work Program that federal funds in significant amounts went directly to students as an aid toward their college expenses. Federal assistance to veterans after World War II and the Korean Conflict sent billions of federal dollars to millions of veterans for their higher education expenses.

Russia's launching of Sputnik I in 1957 vaulted student aid for higher education into a top national priority and in

1958, with the National Defense Education Act, began the modern period of student financial aid. There followed a number of other federal student aid programs in the 1960's and a growth of state scholarship programs in the 1950's and 1960's making it necessary for most colleges to create a new administrative position on their campuses, that of the director of financial aid.

This study will research the role of the financial aid director in his own institution in selected colleges and universities in the eleven states of the Midwest Association of Student Financial Aid Administrators. Chapter Two will review the pertinent literature relating to financial aid and the financial aid director.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH AND LITERATURE

The literature on student financial aid reflects the history of recent American higher education. The decade between 1958 and 1968 saw the birth and development of several student financial aid programs. The National Defense Education Act of 1958 ushered in the modern era of student financial aid with the first major federal student loan program. The 1960's saw the introduction of a federal grant program, a work-study program, and another massive student loan program. State scholarship programs began to multiply and their budgets for student assistance steadily grew during the early 1960's. A concerted effort was made by both federal and state governments to remove all economic barriers to higher education. Thus, most of the literature on student financial aid is very recent, dating from the early 1960's and becoming more voluminous as the sixties came to a close.

The literature covers a wide range of topics. Since student financial aid is intimately connected with the general topic of the financing of higher education, some of the

literature reviewed in this chapter will touch upon this subject. General financial aid policies of individual institutions or groups or types of institutions are the topics of other literature and research discussed in this chapter. Those who receive aid, as well as those who administer it, must also come into consideration.

For purposes of convenience and clarity, the literature reviewed will be grouped under three headings: 1) literature concerned with financial aid in general; 2) literature concerned with the recipients of financial aid; and 3) literature concerned with the financial aid administrators. Within divisions, a logical rather than a chronological sequence will be followed as much as possible, with the literature grouped according to topic.

### FINANCIAL AID IN GENERAL

The boom years following World War II saw a dramatic increase in enrollments in higher education. The G. I. Bill of Rights gave millions of veterans billions of dollars for their education, most of which was paid directly to colleges and universities in the form of student fees. During the 1950's, enrollments continued to rise. Higher education

became more and more to be perceived as the birthright of every citizen, rather than a privilege. Higher education was the means by which an individual increased his social status in the United States.

There was a growing problem, however. As enrollments increased, so did the costs to institutions. Facilities had to be expanded and faculties needed to be increased. All these things were needed to accommodate the large numbers of students seeking to be educated. These problems, added to the rising costs of living and inflation, made the financing of higher education a critical issue in the early 1960's.

Since the federal government took a major step in the financing of higher education with the National Defense Education Act of 1958, it became easier in the early sixties to argue for more involvement of the federal government into the financial plight of colleges and universities. Higher education was seen by many authors as extremely important for the national purposes. Economists, such as Burton A. Weisbrod, spoke of federal aid to higher education as an "investment in human capital."<sup>1</sup> He saw education as providing benefits,

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<sup>1</sup>Burton A. Weisbrod, "Measuring the Economic Effects of Education," in Student Financial Aid and National Purpose (Princeton, New Jersey: College Entrance Examination Board, 1962), p. 13.

substantial in value, for many more people in addition to those who receive the education. He insisted that "the nation has a real economic stake in educating its youth."<sup>2</sup>

Robert J. Havighurst argued that "the political and social gains (from increased education) seem to be two--an informed citizenry and societal stability through social mobility."<sup>3</sup>

Dael Wolfle took a wider view.

There are mutually reinforcing reasons for the widespread adoption of the policy of opening the doors of education to all students of ability, regardless of social or economic differences. One is the humanitarian recognition of human rights. The other is recognition that the policy makes good economic sense--that it is, in fact, an essential policy for a country that wishes to forge ahead in the modern technological world.<sup>4</sup>

As the 1960's progressed the issue of federal aid to higher education became less and less debated. Except for a few objectors, most authorities favored an increased role of the federal government in financing higher education. One dissenting voice argued as follows:

The greater the extent to which students can obtain support from non-college sources to permit them to attend

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<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 27.

<sup>3</sup>Robert J. Havighurst, "The Social and Political Arguments for Extending the Reach of Education," ibid., p. 31.

<sup>4</sup>Dael Wolfle, "Our Widespread Stake in Developing Talent," ibid., p. 40.



the colleges of their choice, the more probable it is that tuitions will be increased. Why not, if outside sources are meeting much of the cost? If this logic deserves consideration, and I believe it does, then one of the effects of a massive federal scholarship program might to be encourage and justify increases in tuition and other charges to the point at which the greatest majority of families who have incomes under \$7,500 will find it even more difficult to finance the higher education of their children.<sup>5</sup>

The mid 1960's saw the enactment of several more federal student aid programs. The long clamor for increased federal aid had finally produced results. The College Work Study Program, the Educational Opportunity Grant Program, and the Guaranteed Loan Program committed the federal government to massive support for the higher education of students.

The issue of federal support for higher education was not, however, laid to rest with this increased student aid. The financial problems of higher education were not less in the late 1960's. If anything, they were more severe, especially for the private institutions of higher education. The new debate concerned not whether there should be federal aid to higher education, but what form that aid should take. Should the assistance of the government be given directly to

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<sup>5</sup>John M. Stalnaker, "Private Aid to Education--Its Future Role," ibid., p. 56.

the institutions themselves, private as well as public, to help them survive; or should aid be limited to students?

H. Edwin Young felt strongly that students were paying more of the cost of higher education than they ought to be paying. Student aid ought to be supplemented by a program of direct federal aid to institutions of higher education.

Aids for the economically disadvantaged have not generally kept pace with rises in costs to the students. Many of those who escape family and neighborhood constraints in order to seek greater opportunity do so at the price of substantial personal indebtedness. Young women are especially disadvantaged by loan programs which force them to careers in the marketplace rather than in the home--a home to which they bring a negative dowry. A young man must have a large degree of self-confidence and confidence in the future of society to start his career encumbered by several thousands of dollars of debt.<sup>6</sup>

Those, like Young, who argued for direct institutional aid were not arguing against student aid. All educators were in favor of programs of student aid. Some, however, felt that student aid was not enough to maintain the needed diversity in the types of higher education offered in the country. Their position was that only federal dollars, given directly to institutions with no strings attached, could provide the aid

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<sup>6</sup>H. Edwin Young, "New Federal Support to Institutions and Students: What Emphasis? I," Liberal Education, LVI (May, 1970), 306.

necessary to maintain a viable educational system.

Those who argued for institutional aid were, nevertheless, in the minority. Many more, particularly economists, argued for increased programs of student aid, not aid to institutions. Robert H. Haveman's arguments were typical.

If one's goal, then, is to increase the volume of higher education services produced, I would argue that the average direct student aid dollar is a substantially more powerful dollar than the average dollar of institutional aid--especially if the student aid is directed at low income families.<sup>7</sup>

Kenneth D. Roose summed up the arguments on both sides of the debate.

Supporters of aid to individual students are primarily concerned about efficiency, equity, and educational opportunities for students from lower economic and social backgrounds. Those stressing institutional aid emphasize the social gains accruing to society generally from education, while asserting at the same time that low tuition also widens educational opportunity.<sup>8</sup>

Roose supported aid to students because it does several things better than institutional aid. It increases economic efficiency, widens educational opportunity, responds better to student

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<sup>7</sup>Robert H. Haveman, "New Federal Support to Institutions and Students: What Emphasis? II," Liberal Education, LVI (May, 1970), 314-5.

<sup>8</sup>Kenneth D. Roose, "Aid to Students or to Institutions?" Educational Record, LI (Fall, 1970), 357.

needs, and, finally, preserves the dual system of higher education.<sup>9</sup>

Michael Clurman also argued against institutional aid as a means of solving the financial crisis in higher education. He urged that a better system of student aid be developed so that the money could be put in the hands of the buyers rather than the sellers and, thus, stimulate competition. He felt that student aid should be in the form of grants for economically disadvantaged students and long-term loans for others, and that the payment of these loans ought to be tied in with the future incomes of the loan recipients. He sums up his arguments in the following.

Student aid is therefore a flexible instrument which can be used to fulfill the major public objectives...in higher education. Specifically, student aid can increase equality of opportunity, provide any desired level of subsidy to higher education, and provide differential subsidization for different types of education. But in the vast majority of educational decisions we have no reason to believe that any given alternative is more heavily loaded with external benefits than any other. In such situations, the most sensible course is to allow consumer choices to determine the allocation of resources within the higher educational sector. This can be done only by giving students the same ability to bid resources into the types of schools they want which consumers in other sectors of the economy enjoy. And this in turn implies that we embark on a policy of encouraging tuition charges to cover more nearly the full cost of higher

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<sup>9</sup>Ibid., p. 366.

education and adopting a well-thought-out program of student aid.<sup>10</sup>

Charles C. Collins was also against institutional aid, but he proposed a different form of student aid. He suggested that student aid be in the form of a loan, given to applicants regardless of need and measured only by the student's costs at his institution. His proposal envisioned "a revolving loan fund to provide the operational cost of public or private higher education for any and all citizens, a loan that will, over the years, be paid back by the beneficiaries through a surtax when their income reaches a level of reasonable affluence."<sup>11</sup>

The strongest voice on the financing of higher education was, no doubt, raised by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, headed by Clark Kerr. The Commission's recommendations, covering all aspects of higher education in the United States, came in a series of publications beginning in the late 1960's. The Commission did not support a program

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<sup>10</sup>Michael Clurman, "How Shall We Finance Higher Education?" Public Interest, XIX (Spring, 1970), 109.

<sup>11</sup>Charles C. Collins, "Financing Higher Education: A Proposal," Educational Record, LI (Fall, 1970), 370.

of institutional aid, but proposed that there be a federal grant for any student who needs one and a federal loan for any student who wants one.<sup>12</sup>

There were also those who argued for a stronger involvement of state governments in student financial aid. The responsibility for assisting students, they reminded us, did not rest solely with the federal government. Arthur S. Marmaduke argued for a program of federal scholarships administered through the states with federal funds going directly to the states on a matching basis.<sup>13</sup> He felt that both the federal and the state governments share responsibility for developing talented citizens and encouraging individual excellence. James E. Allen, Jr., also supported a federal scholarship program administered through the states, because "the success of education in this country depends in large measure on the strength and vitality of the state education

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<sup>12</sup> Howard R. Bowen, The Finance of Higher Education (Berkeley, California: Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1968) and Carnegie Commission on the Future of Higher Education, Quality and Equality: New Levels of Federal Responsibility for Higher Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., Inc., 1968).

<sup>13</sup> Arthur S. Marmaduke, "What Part the States Should Play in Student Aid," in Student Financial Aid and National Purpose, op. cit., pp. 45-51.

departments."<sup>14</sup>

Many of the ideas proposed by these educators and economists brought results. The Educational Amendments of 1972 increased programs of student aid, gave matching funds to state governments for either starting or increasing scholarship programs, and even started a program of direct institutional aid. The Executive Branch of the federal government, however, has affected the legislation by freezing funds for some of these programs.

The financing of higher education was not the only concern of those who wrote on financial aid. Others were concerned about how this ever-growing budget for student financial aid was administered. On this topic, some research was undertaken beginning in the late 1960's.

Two national studies were conducted in 1970. Melvin D. Orwig took a stratified sample of all the institutions of higher education in the United States participating in at least one of the federal programs of student financial aid.<sup>15</sup>

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<sup>14</sup>James E. Allen, Jr., "Diversity of Sources: Key to Flexibility in Student Aid," *ibid.*, p. 73.

<sup>15</sup>Melvin D. Orwig, "A Survey of Financial Need Analysis Methods Used in Institutions of Higher Education" (unpublished Ed. D. dissertation, Indiana University, 1970).

His purpose was to survey the need analysis systems they used and the attitudes of the financial aid officers regarding their system. Among his findings was that the College Scholarship Service system was the most frequently used, especially among private institutions. Most aid officers were satisfied with the system they used, although more officers using decentralized systems (Income Tax Method, Alternate Income Method, or the institution's own method) preferred to change, rather than those using centralized systems (The College Scholarship Service and American College Testing).

Also, in 1970, Walter N. Kunz did a study of the 207 institutions of higher education employing their own method of need analysis.<sup>16</sup> His study reveals a high degree of similarity in the factors considered in determining family financial need, but a wide variety in the amounts of expected parental contributions for families with the same financial resources. This was especially true as incomes increased. Institutional characteristics appear to have influenced the manner in which income, assets, and other variables were used to determine

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<sup>16</sup>Walter N. Kunz, "A Study of Institutions' Own Methods of Student Financial Need Analysis" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, State University of New York at Buffalo, 1970).



financial need.

Some research was done with institutions in a particular region of the country. Carl R. Voigtel did a study on the awarding of financial aid by colleges and universities in several states of the Southwest.<sup>17</sup> His study reveals varying degrees of contrasting interpretations of federal guidelines, when non-cognitive factors are introduced into the decision making process of financial aid. Such factors as recent marriage, ownership of a late model car, reception of an athletic scholarship, unconventionality in dress and appearance, misconduct or disciplinary action by a college or law agency--all these sometimes are or are not a reason for denying aid. The decisions also vary from college to college.

Morton A. Rauh did a recent study of the financial aid practices of the twenty-four colleges belonging to the Associated Colleges of the Midwest and the Great Lakes Association. His stated purpose was to find out "how the financial viability of the private college might be strengthened through

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<sup>17</sup>Carl R. Voigtel, "The Significance of Non-Cognitive Factors Used in Determining Recipients for Federal Financial Aid Awards in the Southwest" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Texas A & M University, 1970).

change in financial assistance programs."<sup>18</sup> His study revealed that the financial viability of all of these colleges was inextricably connected with their student financial aid programs. Their income depended largely on their enrollment and their enrollment depended upon financial aid. Some of his suggestions were that the ratio of loans to grants from college funds be altered toward more loans for students. He called for a new approach to loans, however, making loan repayment connected with future income and the colleges forming a consortial lending agency to make this approach to loans feasible financially.<sup>19</sup>

In 1970, Donald R. Liggett studied eight selective Midwestern liberal arts colleges.<sup>20</sup> His results showed that financial aid programs at these institutions had increased almost tenfold since 1950. Yet, despite that increase in financial aid, the student population of these institutions came from a higher socio-economic class. This result he

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<sup>18</sup>Morton A. Rauh, Student Financial Aid at Private Colleges (Yellow Springs, Ohio: The Great Lakes Colleges Association, 1972), p. 1.

<sup>19</sup>Ibid., pp. 73-74.

<sup>20</sup>Donald R. Liggett, "Financial Aid and Socio-Economic Composition in Liberal Arts Colleges" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Stanford University, 1970).

attributed to increasing tuition charges, an increasing reliance on socio-economically-sensitive admissions criteria, and an increasing emphasis on graduate school preparation.

Beginning in the late 1960's, several research projects were done on the administration of financial aid on a state wide basis. Bryan J. Mosher's study was a history of the State Scholarship Program in the State of New York.<sup>21</sup> His research revealed that the interests supporting private higher education have been strong from the beginning of the Scholarship Program. Nearly all legislation has benefited students attending private institutions and has encouraged the most talented students to attend these private institutions in the State of New York.

Harold J. McGee surveyed the financial aid programs of all the institutions in the State of West Virginia.<sup>22</sup> His survey attempted to measure the total impact, if any, of the federal programs of student financial aid upon these institutions.

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<sup>21</sup>Bryan J. Mosher, "A Century of Financial Aid by the State of New York to Students in Higher Education" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Syracuse University, 1967).

<sup>22</sup>Harold J. McGee, "An Analysis of the Impact of Federally Supported Student Financial Aid Programs in Institutions of Higher Education in the State of West Virginia" (unpublished Ed.D dissertation, University of Virginia, 1968).

He discovered a definite impact "attributable to the funds provided, as well as to the nature and design of the programs."<sup>23</sup> Among other results, he found a separation of student financial aid into strictly dichotomized fiscal and academic functions. No longer was financial aid handled by a fiscal officer exclusively. Full time administrators were appointed under the direction of the chief student personnel administrator.

Roy S. Nicks concentrated his research on the State of Tennessee and discovered that, while Tennessee institutions received a smaller percentage of their financial aid funds from federal programs than the national average, they nevertheless expended a larger percentage of their operating budgets for student aid than the national average.<sup>24</sup> He also found that children from families with low incomes were not applying for admission to institutions in Tennessee in as great a proportion as children from families with medium or high incomes.

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<sup>23</sup>Ibid., p. 147.

<sup>24</sup>Roy S. Nicks, "A Study of Student Financial Aid Programs in Institutions of Higher Education in Tennessee for 1967-68" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Memphis State University, 1969).

In 1968, Benjamin T. Whitfield surveyed the community junior colleges in Florida.<sup>25</sup> He studied their financial aid practices and compared the junior college students who received financial aid in the form of scholarships with other students who did not receive scholarships. He found many variations existing in the administration of financial aid at these colleges. Generally, the larger the institution, the more time financial aid officers spent on financial aid. Financial need was the most important criterion for awarding aid and academic ability was next. Scholarship students were significantly different from other students in several achievement variables.

Junior colleges in the State of Illinois was the topic of Howard M. Bers' research.<sup>26</sup> Bers, to a large extent, repeated Whitfield's study on the forty-five public junior colleges in Illinois. His purpose was to determine the

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<sup>25</sup>Benjamin T. Whitfield, "A Survey of Financial Assistance to Students in Florida's Public Community Junior Colleges with an Evaluation of Selected Programs" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Florida State University, 1968).

<sup>26</sup>Howard M. Bers, "An Investigation into Financial Aids Practices in Illinois Public Junior Colleges" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 1970).

strengths and weaknesses of their financial aid programs, the position of the financial aid office in the administrative structure, the awarding methods, and the types of aid available to students. Among his findings was that most institutions had an aid officer with no professional preparation or training for the position. Staffing in the financial aid office in relation to the size of the institution was below recognized national standards. Bers saw the strength of the financial aid program in the basic philosophy of the community college system: open to all students regardless of need. The principal weakness was an inadequacy of funds to support a comprehensive program. Participation in the federal programs was considerably less than that of four-year institutions.

Finally, there was a research study of one program at one institution. Annabelle Reitman evaluated the College Work-Study Program at the Brooklyn Center of Long Island University.<sup>27</sup> Her evaluation was generally favorable. She found, however, that there was a need to place more low income

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<sup>27</sup>Annabelle Reitman, "The College Work-Study Program at Long Island University, Brooklyn Center: Description, Evaluation and Plans for the Future" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1969).

students into the program, to expand off-campus opportunities, and to place all eligible applicants into the program.

### THE RECIPIENTS OF FINANCIAL AID

Concern about the recipients of financial aid was evident in the literature. Who was receiving financial aid? How did aid recipients compare with non-recipients of aid? These questions and others had social implications for higher education as a whole. The financial aid system, at least as it was designed on the federal level, was meant to bring into higher education the students from low-income families. These were the students who were traditionally kept out because of insurmountable economic barriers. Did the financial aid programs actually bring in these low-income students?

George A. Schlekat researched this question in 1965.<sup>28</sup> He studied the financial aid applications at 650 colleges and universities to determine whether there was a relationship between the socio-economic class of financial aid recipients and the institution's practices of distributing financial aid. Among his results, he found a positive correlation between

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<sup>28</sup>George A. Schlekat, "College Financial Aid Awards as a Function of Socio-Economic Class" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, 1966).

family income and aptitude test scores. In addition, students from a higher socio-economic class were more likely to be rejected for financial aid. When they received aid, however, they were more likely to receive grant-only awards than were students from lower socio-economic groups. Schlekot found no differences with regard to the sex of applicants. He also found that the amount of the awards made was inversely related to the socio-economic class of the applicants.

Commenting later upon his research, Schlekot observed the following about the present system of awarding financial aid.

The system was designed to bring proven academically able students who had insufficient funds to pay college bills to college campuses. Unfortunately proven academic capability is rarely a characteristic of a poor student. The problem is that criteria for admission have remained the same, and the financial aid system working alone cannot alter a non-egalitarian admissions system.<sup>29</sup>

R. Gordon Bingham had a similar indictment of the way financial aid was handled. He observed that colleges and universities were using financial aid as a recruitment tool to get the kind of students they wanted and the results were the

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<sup>29</sup>George A. Schlekot, "Who Really Gets Financial Aid?" Journal of the National Association of College Admissions Counselors, XIV (February, 1970), 20-1.



same as those noted by Schlekot.

The view that scholarship dollars are really just a form of institutional investment and must bear a 'return' has led to all sorts of incongruities in the awarding process. Those students who look best on paper tend to be those who have had the best academic preparation, have had time to participate in extracurricular activities, have had parental encouragement--in short, the middle to upper income student. Thus financial aid resources are used to help induce this sort of attractive-looking student to a particular college.<sup>30</sup>

There were spokesmen for the blacks, who noted the small percentage of black students in higher education when compared with the percentage of blacks in the total population of the United States. Herman R. Branson's suggestion to improve the situation involved a large expenditure of financial aid. He noted that "any school planning to increase materially its number of Negro students must plan a financial aid packet that will meet the total expenses of all of them--tuition, room, board, books, supplies, pocket money--with no aid from their parents."<sup>31</sup> A further suggestion came from a black student who had, himself, experienced the financial aid system

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<sup>30</sup>R. Gordon Bingham, "Financial Aid Packaging: Student Serving or Institution Serving?" Journal of the National Association of College Admissions Counselors, XV (August, 1970), 24.

<sup>31</sup>Herman R. Branson, "Financing Higher Education for Poor People: Fact and Fiction," College Board Review, LXXVII (Fall, 1970), 8.

as practiced in colleges and universities.

If there is a desire to make the financial aid system work more effectively in providing equal opportunity, this point must be understood: we must have aggressive young Afro-Americans to do the job. The state of race relations in most American cities dictates that whites, no matter how good their intentions, will produce only token results. Black administrators can begin the critical task of recruiting and counseling alienated Afro-Americans (Afro-Americans whom whites often find either unapproachable or lacking in college potential). Black administrators can set up financial counseling sessions with black students--counseling that deals with real financial needs of blacks, especially needs of a domestic and personal nature.<sup>32</sup>

Several doctoral dissertations explored further the recipients of financial aid. All were done on the recipients of aid at individual institutions. Marvin G. Rist's findings at the University of South Dakota were the most condemnatory.<sup>33</sup> Although his research was not as extensive as Schlekot's, his results were comparable. He did a study of 170 entering freshmen aid recipients. He found that students with the least financial need received the most favorable financial aid awards with respect to the fulfillment of their need and the

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<sup>32</sup>Frank M. McClellan, "A Black Student Looks at the Present System of Financial Aid," College Board Review, LXXVII (Fall, 1970), 12.

<sup>33</sup>Marvin G. Rist, "A Study of Freshmen Financial Aid Awards with Respect to Student Need" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1970).

proportion of gift aid to self-help. The higher the student's socio-economic standing and academic achievement, the better was his award. Rist also found that a student who did not qualify for an Educational Opportunity Grant and whose academic profile did not qualify him for a scholarship, was more apt to receive an award comprised mostly of self-help.

Harvey S. Ideus was concerned about the problem of how parents contributed to the cost of their children's education.<sup>34</sup> He did a study at the University of Wyoming of freshmen students during the 1963-1964 academic year. Among his findings were that parents were more likely to contribute more to students who made up the difference in costs from summer earnings combined with part-time employment, scholarships, or loans. Parents financed their children's education mostly from current income. Next to current income, the most common method of financing education was by the mother's going to work.

Two dissertations explored the academic achievements

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<sup>34</sup>Harvey S. Ideus, "The Relationship Between Wyoming Parents' Contributions to Expenses of Freshmen Students Attending the University of Wyoming and Selected Family Characteristics" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Wyoming, 1965).

of students receiving financial aid. The results were different, however, in both cases. John G. Kane found that students receiving financial aid at Winona State College were performing academically better than non-financial aid recipients.<sup>35</sup> Bruce B. Kelly at the University of Illinois, on the other hand, found no significant difference between the academic achievement of those students who received financial aid and those who did not.<sup>36</sup> He further found that there was no significant difference between the two groups in the level of ability as measured by the ACT Battery and the type of financial aid award, nor between the academic achievement of those students whose combination of financial aid included part-time work and those whose combination did not.

Kelly's results were supported by two other dissertations that examined aid recipients on academic variables, as well as other variables. John L. Klem researched students

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<sup>35</sup>John G. Kane, "A Comparative Study of Academic Success and Other Selected Characteristics of Financial Aid and Non-Financial Aid Recipients at Winona State College" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Oregon State University, 1970).

<sup>36</sup>Bruce B. Kelly, "An Analysis of Various Types of Financial Aid and Academic Achievement at the University of Illinois" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 1970).

who had received National Defense Loans from Ball State University between 1959 and 1961.<sup>37</sup> He found no significant differences between those receiving National Defense Student Loans (NDSL) and those not receiving the loans in: academic achievement, number of hours completed towards a degree, and the number who graduated. In non-academic variables, however, those who did receive NDSL's had significantly more scholarships from the institution and worked more. Those who did not receive NDSL's had fathers who earned more and gave more money to their children for education. Loan receivers also borrowed more from other sources and more often chose teaching as a profession.

E. Joseph Zaccardelli compared students who received financial aid at Wayne State University with those who had not received aid.<sup>38</sup> Statistically significant was the number of non-whites in the group receiving financial aid. His data did not support the need for additional personnel services

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<sup>37</sup>John L. Klem, "Borrowing for a College Education: A Study of Selected Academic and Non-Academic Variables" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Indiana University, 1968).

<sup>38</sup>E. Joseph Zaccardelli, "A Study of Selected Characteristics of Students Attending an Urban University While Receiving Financial Aid Under Certain Federal Acts as Contrasted to Students not Receiving Financial Assistance" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Wayne State University, 1968).

for those students receiving aid. Like Kelly's study at the University of Illinois, Zaccardelli found that aided students achieved academic success comparably to non-aided students. In addition, aided students were not encountering any more problems than those not on aid, except financial ones.

The attitudes and opinions of financial aid recipients were tested in two research dissertations by Dennis M. Edwards and Alan L. Staley. Edwards sampled the opinions of aid recipients at the University of Illinois, Champaign-Urbana, toward present and proposed financial aid programs and practices.<sup>39</sup> Students from economically disadvantaged families or whose parental contribution to their education was low responded significantly differently than those from families with higher parental contributions. The poorer students were more willing to accept larger loans and were less confident of their ability to work ten hours a week or more. In general, all students sampled preferred loans to work-study assistance.

The second study of attitudes or opinions was Alan L.

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<sup>39</sup>Dennis M. Edwards, "Financing Higher Education: Perspectives of Financial Aid Recipients" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Illinois-Urbana, 1971).

Staley's at Colorado State College.<sup>40</sup> He questioned the recipients of National Defense Student Loans from Colorado State College after they had graduated to determine the influence of the loan and its forgiveness clause on the borrower's ability to attend college, on his decision to enter the teaching profession, and on the length of service as a teacher. A significant number of loan recipients said that the loan was a factor in their being able to attend college. Unlike Klem's findings at Ball State University, however, an overwhelming majority of borrowers stated that the forgiveness clause did not influence their becoming teachers.

#### FINANCIAL AID ADMINISTRATORS

There was concern in the literature, as noted earlier, about the effects of student financial aid on higher education. Was it helping to achieve equality of access to higher education? There was also concern about those who were receiving financial aid, for this was a question closely linked with the achievement of national goals. How financial aid was administered in institutions of higher education was another concern.

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<sup>40</sup>Alan L. Staley, "A Study of the Validity of the National Defense Student Loan Program at Colorado State College" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Colorado State College, 1967).

Interest in this subject is manifest from the studies of the financial aid policies and practices of institutions across the country. It is also manifest, however, in the literature about and research on the individuals on college campuses charged with the responsibility of administering financial aid.

The student financial aid director was recognized early as an important instrument in achieving the goals of programs of financial aid. He is the person on the college campus who makes it possible for the boy from the inner city to receive the same education as the girl from the wealthy suburb. The director helps the middle income family keep their two children in college. He also advises the returning veteran on how best to finance his last two years of college.

Much was and is demanded of the aid director. As financial aid programs multiplied and dollars increased, an increasing expertise and sophistication was demanded of campus officials charged with administering financial aid. Not only technical expertise was demanded, however. Financial aid officers had to deal with sometimes delicate human problems. Counseling skills were often needed. With the development of programs for the disadvantaged student, a new kind of



sensitivity was demanded of the aid director. Speaking of this Joe B. Henry made the following observations.

This development has required of the financial aid officer sophistication and skill in the management and allocation of his student aid funds. It has also demanded that technical skills necessary to identifying and working with the disadvantaged student, as well as a basic understanding of the broad social and cultural issues of modern society, become important to the financial aid office.<sup>41</sup>

Early in the 1960's, concern about the aid officer was voiced by a former aid director.

There are still too few college financial aid officers and particularly too few good ones. What is the quality, the level of competence or distinction, the status in the academic community of college financial aid officers?<sup>42</sup>

It was to answer questions like these that a national survey of financial aid directors in four-year institutions was undertaken in 1965. The research was conducted by George Nash and Paul F. Lazarsfeld and sponsored by the College Entrance Examination Board.<sup>43</sup> The authors attempted to find

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<sup>41</sup>Joe B. Henry, "Trends in Student Financial Aid," Journal of College Student Personnel, X (July, 1969), 228.

<sup>42</sup>Wilbur J. Bender, "Our Student Aid Patchwork Needs Drastic Revision," in Student Financial Aid and National Purpose, op. cit., p. 103.

<sup>43</sup>George Nash and Paul F. Lazarsfeld, New Administrator on Campus: A Study of the Director of Financial Aid (New York: Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University, 1968).

out what types of people were financial aid directors, what kind of work they did, and what were their opinions about certain financial aid policies and other matters related to their function. Among their findings were that only sixteen per cent of the aid directors worked full-time at financial aid, and that an effective aid director is more likely to work in a centralized aid organization with all aid functions under one office. Younger aid directors were more likely to aspire to higher positions, most commonly the Dean of Students position. Full-time directors were much more likely to be satisfied with their jobs.

Nash and Lazarsfeld further found that, in general, aid administrators were well-qualified, experienced, and reasonably well compensated for their work. They also found that the aid administrator's position in the administrative hierarchy of colleges and universities was fairly well established. One of the strong points noted by the authors was the fact that aid directors saw the guidance function of their jobs as more important than the administrative or bookkeeping function.

There were some weaknesses noted by Nash and Lazarsfeld, however, in the financial aid profession. One was the high degree of turnover among financial aid administrators. A random sample in 1966 of those tested in 1965 showed that the annual turnover rate was as high as thirty-eight per cent.<sup>44</sup> This was again the complaint in 1967.

One main shortcoming of today's student financial aid programs is the lack of trained administrative personnel. The U. S. Office of Education has voiced a concern about the rapid turnover of financial aid personnel. General Motors Corporation has 'redirected' philanthropy to higher education by decreasing the number of scholars they support, giving the 30 percent turnover in student financial aid administrators as one reason for this action. They felt their programs were being neglected because of the lack of continuity from year to year.<sup>45</sup>

Gradually, as the 1960's came to a close more research was done on financial aid administrators. The aid officers in junior colleges were the objects of two studies. In 1969, James B. Puryear attempted to do with the junior colleges what Nash and Lazarsfeld did with the senior colleges.<sup>46</sup> Many of

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<sup>44</sup>Ibid., pp. 8.13-8.14.

<sup>45</sup>Donovan J. Allen, "Financial Aid Updated," Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors, XXX (Winter, 1967), 61.

<sup>46</sup>James B. Puryear, "A Descriptive Study of Certain Characteristics of Financial Aid Services and Officers in Junior Colleges" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Florida State University, 1969).

Puryear's findings parallel very closely those of Nash and Lazarsfeld. Puryear found, however, that junior college directors were more likely to have other tasks in their institutions in addition to financial aid than were senior college directors. They were also less likely to report directly to the president and their offices were more likely to be understaffed. Also, the educational background of junior college directors was more likely to be less than that of their counterparts in senior institutions.

Paul M. Hinko, as a result of his study of financial aid officers in eighty-eight public community junior colleges in the states of Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin, reported the following results.

The typical financial aid officer is characterized by the following: (1) he is married, male, about thirty-seven years old, and possesses a master's degree in guidance and counseling; (2) he earns about \$14,000 a year, has an employment contract of 46 weeks in length, is a member of his institution's administrative staff, and holds the title of director; (3) he is solely responsible for the administration of the financial aid program, is aided by one clerical assistant, and has additional responsibilities in at least two non-aid areas, most likely placement and counseling; and (4) he has been employed about two years in his present position, holds active membership in a state financial aid association, was employed in a counseling capacity at the college level immediately prior

to his present position, and is supervised by a dean.<sup>47</sup>

Clarence L. Casazza in 1970 undertook a study of the directors of financial aid at the 179 institutions of higher education in the United States with an enrollment of over 10,000 students.<sup>48</sup> Asking them about their career decisions, Casazza found that eighty-seven per cent of them saw themselves as remaining in financial aid or going on to other administrative positions in higher education. Over two-thirds of the respondents had had no previous training in financial aid and the great majority of them saw themselves as specialists in financial aid administration.

Also, in 1970, Nai-Kwang Chang attempted to determine how different types of individuals selected recipients of financial aid.<sup>49</sup> He tested four types of judges: college presidents, financial aid directors, lay policy board members,

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<sup>47</sup>Paul M. Hinko, "Financial Aid Officers and Institutional Programs," Junior College Journal, XLI (April, 1971), 23.

<sup>48</sup>Clarence L. Casazza, "Career Patterns of Financial Aids Directors" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Indiana University, 1970).

<sup>49</sup>Nai-Kwang Chang, "Hierarchical Groupings of Judges According to Selection Criteria for Financial Aid Awards" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Northern Colorado, 1970).

and staff members of state agencies. He found no common policy of awarding aid. He found, however, that financial aid directors were more highly correlated among themselves than were college presidents or the other two groups. Financial aid directors most commonly used two criteria for awarding aid: non-ownership of an automobile and the total cost at the college and other sources of financial support.

Shirley J. B. Moore was concerned about the personality characteristics and the professional preparation of financial aid directors.<sup>50</sup> For her sample, she asked the directors of ten regional offices of the federal Department of Health, Education, and Welfare to suggest the four men among college aid directors in their districts whom they considered the most knowledgeable in financial aids. Moore then sent the aid directors named a questionnaire asking for course descriptions for the training of financial aid officers and an Edwards Personal Preference Schedule. The aid directors selected courses emphasizing operational procedures of the financial aid office as the best preparation rather than courses in psychology, counseling and guidance, business and economics,

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<sup>50</sup>Shirley J. B. Moore, "Personality Characteristics and Preparation of Financial Aid Administrators" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Colorado State College, 1969).

student personnel work, and research methods. From the Edwards tests, Moore described the typical aid director as follows.

...about forty, with six to eight years of experience who spends virtually all of his time dealing with financial aid. He is not aggressive, does not need to be the center of attention. He is not a joiner of professional organizations. He has a desire to achieve and tries to look at problems from the point of view of others. He wants to be attractive to the opposite sex.<sup>51</sup>

More recent concern evidenced in the literature is about the level of professional development of the financial aid director. The results of two research studies were published recently. Warren W. Willingham developed a questionnaire to measure the level of professional development of financial aid directors.<sup>52</sup> His research was taken on a random sample of aid directors in institutions of the Western states. Willingham found in 1970 a more experienced aid director than Nash and Lazarsfeld found in 1965. He also found that the following directors ranked low on a scale measuring professionalization: 1) almost half of the junior college aid officers; 2) two-thirds of all respondents from colleges with small aid

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<sup>51</sup>Ibid., p. 154.

<sup>52</sup>Warren W. Willingham, Professional Development of Financial Aid Officers (Palo Alto, California: Western Regional Office, College Entrance Examination Board, 1970).

programs; 3) almost three-fourths of part-time officers working without additional professional assistance; and 4) one third of those who report having primary responsibility for aid policy on their campus.<sup>53</sup>

In 1972, O. Wayne Chambers repeated Willingham's study, in the Southern States.<sup>54</sup> He used basically the same questionnaire, again to measure the level of professional development of the student financial aid administrators. He sent his questionnaires to 600 institutions in nine states of the South. According to the index of professionalization developed by Willingham, Chambers ranked the aid administrators, high, medium, and low. Of those ranking low in professionalization: 1) almost forty per cent were employed by two-year institutions; 2) thirty per cent had under one year of experience; 3) seventy-one per cent directed small aid programs; and 4) fifty per cent worked alone on a part-time basis.<sup>55</sup> His findings remarkably supported Willingham's in the Western

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<sup>53</sup>Ibid., p. 13.

<sup>54</sup>O. Wayne Chambers, A Survey of the Professional Development of Student Financial Aid Administrators in Nine Southern States (n.p.: Southern Association of Student Financial Aid Administrators, 1972).

<sup>55</sup>Ibid., p. 21.



States.

One area of research about financial aid directors has hardly been touched upon: the position of the financial aid director in his own institution. Nash and Lazarsfeld's survey in 1965 was important as the first attempt to find information on a national basis about financial aid directors.<sup>56</sup> The authors made no attempt, however, to measure the importance of the aid director in his own institution. In addition, their survey was made in 1965 when the financial aid profession was still in its infancy. Their results showed that only sixteen per cent of aid directors worked full-time on financial aid. Much has happened since 1965 and it seems probable that the aid director has changed since that date.

Puryear<sup>57</sup> discovered some information about aid directors in junior colleges and Bers<sup>58</sup> made some evaluation of aid directors in their own institutions in public junior colleges in Illinois. These studies have barely scratched the surface. Much more research needs to be done.

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<sup>56</sup>Supra, p. 77.

<sup>57</sup>Supra, p. 79.

<sup>58</sup>Supra, p. 65.

Howard F. Aldmon, in a recent publication of the College Entrance Examination Board, made the following observation.

Visits to some 50 colleges and universities during the past five years have convinced me that too few aid administrators assume leadership responsibilities in policy development, and in several institutions the aid administrator has had little to say about either institutional aid policies or operational policies associated with the aid office.<sup>59</sup>

This study will attempt to research this opinion in four-year institutions in the Midwest, as well as to make some evaluation of the degree of importance of the aid director in his own institution. It is the author's hope that this study will contribute to our knowledge of the financial aid profession, and, specifically, the director of financial aid.

#### SUMMARY

Chapter two has reviewed some of the pertinent literature and research on financial aid. The literature and research covered financial aid in general, recipients of financial aid, and the administrator of financial aid. Chapter three will detail the method of investigation followed in this study.

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<sup>59</sup>Howard F. Aldmon, "Student Financial Aid Administration: A Time for Action," Financial Aid Report, I (December, 1971), 1.

## CHAPTER III

### METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

As has already been stated, this study investigated the role of the financial aid director in his own institution in colleges and universities in eleven states of the Midwest. This chapter details the procedures followed. Specifically, the procedure involved: 1) selection of the criteria by which to judge the importance of the aid director in his own institution; 2) the hypotheses to be tested and the statistical methods employed to test them; 3) the development of the questionnaire; 4) the selection of the sample; 5) the pilot study; and 6) the testing of the population sample and the follow-up procedures employed.

### THE CRITERIA

Judging the importance of an individual assumes that one has a certain measure or set of criteria on which that judgment is based. To make some evaluation or judgment about the importance of the financial aid director in his own institution, therefore, requires that one first set up the criteria by which the aid director can be judged.

There are no self-evident criteria to evaluate administrative officers in higher education, especially middle management officials. Institutions vary widely among themselves. Administrative officers come from different backgrounds, bringing a wide variety of talents to the performance of their functions. It might be expected, therefore, that financial aid directors will differ in importance from institution to institution. Although they may perform the same administrative tasks, their institutions may view them quite differently. One director of financial aid may be of much more importance to his institution than another is to his.

How does one define importance in this context? Or, to state the problem another way, by what criteria does one judge the importance of the financial aid director in his own institution?

There are no commonly accepted criteria. It was felt, therefore, that the next most logical thing would be to ask the opinions of individuals in the financial aid profession, especially those with long experience and accomplishments in the field. This was the procedure followed. The author wrote to ten individuals from several areas in the United States. Each was a financial aid director in an institution

of higher education. An attempt was made to solicit opinions of individuals from various types of institutions: large as well as small, public and private, as well as two-year and four-year institutions. In addition, the individuals selected were, without exception, leaders in the financial aid profession. They were either current or past officers of state or regional financial aid associations. Some served on national financial aid advisory committees. All had had a considerable influence on the profession and all had had several years of experience as financial aid directors.

To these ten individuals, the author sent a letter requesting their advice. They were told that the purpose of the study was to make an assessment of the importance of the financial aid director in his own institution. They were then asked to suggest criteria that might be used as valid measures of the importance of the aid director in his own institution. The question was deliberately left open-ended, so as not to prejudice their response.

Responses were received from seven of the ten aid directors. A follow-up letter brought responses from the remaining three. Two of the ten responded that the request was too difficult for them to answer hastily and they did not have the

time to devote to it. Another simply responded that he did not have the time to answer the request.

Useable responses were received from seven out of the ten experts polled. A total of twenty different criteria were suggested as measures of importance of the aid director in his own institution. Opinions did converge on several criteria, however. Six out of the seven experts responding mentioned place in the administrative structure of the institution as a method of measuring the aid director's importance. In other words, to whom does he report? As one expert replied, "Ostensibly, fewer persons between himself and the operating head of the college means the higher up he is in the administrative hierarchy."

Just as frequently mentioned as a measure of the aid director's importance was the aid director's role in institutional policy. This was mentioned in various ways as a criterion by six out of the seven respondents. Four experts felt that the extent to which the aid director is involved in institutional policy concerning financial aid is a measure of his importance in his own institution. Five experts said that involvement in policy concerning other institutional matters could indicate the institution's recognition of the aid

director's importance. Involvement in institutional policy, therefore, was divided into two separate criteria, namely, involvement in financial aid policy and involvement in other institutional policy.

The amount of the financial aid director's salary was suggested by three experts as another criterion. Salary, however, is quite relative. Salaries differ widely from institution to institution. All three experts suggesting salary as a criterion felt that it should be measured against other salaries at the same institution. Only then could one judge where the aid director's salary stood on the scale of importance.

The problem in this situation was to find out what typical salaries were at the aid director's institution. For most institutions, salaries of teaching faculty are published yearly in an issue of the journal of the American Association of University Professors. The AAUP Bulletin publishes the average salary according to rank of teaching faculty of all institutions permitting publication of such information. By comparing the aid director's salary with this data, one can rank the director at the level of instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, or full professor. Thus, salary can be a

measure of the importance of the aid director at his own institution, even though his salary is not measured against the salaries of other administrators within his institution.

Three experts mentioned faculty rank as another criterion. This was suggested or alluded to by others as well. Since rank may or may not be given along with tenure, both rank and tenure were treated as two more criteria of the aid director's importance to his institution.

In November of 1971, the author attended the annual meeting of the Midwest Association of Student Financial Aid Administrators held in Cleveland, Ohio. At that meeting, he discussed these criteria with several more financial aid directors. Their opinions supported the six criteria most commonly mentioned by the seven experts on financial aid.

Opinions both of the experts in the field and other aid directors questioned supported six criteria as valid measures of the aid director's importance in his own institution. For these reasons, this study analyzes the aid director's position in his own institution by: 1) his place in the administrative structure; 2) his salary in relation to faculty salaries at his own institution; 3) whether or not he



holds faculty rank; 4) whether or not he is tenured as financial aid director; 5) his involvement in financial aid policy formulation at his own institution; and 6) his involvement in the formulation of other policy at his own institution.

### THE HYPOTHESES

Using these six criteria, an index of importance was developed and aid directors were ranked on a scale of high, medium, and low. The six criteria were taken as equals. Within an individual criterion, a four-point scale was used. The top rank was given a score of four, the next three, and so on. For example, place in the administrative structure was scored as follows: four points for those directly reporting to the president, three for those once removed, two for those twice removed, and one for those three or more times removed from the president. Thus, on all six criteria, a maximum score of twenty-four was possible. Ranking was done as follows: 1) the scores in the top third of the group formed the high group; 2) the middle third formed the medium group; and 3) the bottom third the low group.

The high, medium, and low groups were then analyzed to

determine what significant differences could be found between the three groups. The variables forming the basis for this analysis were: 1) those relating to the particular institution of higher education where the aid director was employed; 2) those relating to the aid director himself; 3) certain opinions of the aid director about his position in his institution; and 4) the aid director's decision about his career choice.

Variables relating to the institution included: 1) the size of the institution; 2) the type of institution, either baccalaureate degree granting only or baccalaureate degree and graduate degree granting; 3) the method of control of the institution, either private or public; and 4) the percentage of its own operating budget the institution allocates to student financial aid.

Several variables relating to the director of financial aid were used in the analysis. These included the following:

- 1) the age of the director;
- 2) his sex;
- 3) the percentage of his working week he devotes to financial aid;
- 4) the number of years he has served in his current position;

- 5) the total number of years he has worked in financial aid;
- 6) the total number of years he has been employed in his present institution;
- 7) the total number of years he has been employed in an institution of higher education;
- 8) his educational background;
- 9) the type of formal training he received in financial aid administration before he entered the profession;
- 10) the type of on-the-job training he received in financial aid administration after entering the profession;
- 11) whether and how often he has published books on financial aid;
- 12) whether and how often he has published articles on financial aid;
- 13) whether and how often he has participated in a leadership or teaching capacity in a financial aid seminar or workshop on a state, regional or national basis or in connection with an institution of higher education;
- 14) whether he is a member of any professional, educational organizations and, if so, which organizations;
- 15) whether he holds or has held office in any professional, educational organizations and, if so, what kinds of organizations.

In addition, the aid director's opinions on several questions relating to his position in his own institution were analyzed as variables. The aid director's degree of agreement or disagreement was sought on the following statements:

- 1) I have enough authority to do the job of financial aid director effectively;
- 2) I have a large enough role in financial aid policy formulation in my institution;
- 3) My superiors have a clear picture of the kind of job I am doing in financial aid administration;
- 4) I have a large enough role in policy formulation in other matters in my institution;
- 5) I am recognized by others in my institution as holding an important administrative position;
- 6) My place in the administrative structure of my institution is adequate;
- 7) In comparison to the salaries of others in my institution, my salary is adequate;
- 8) The experience gained in financial aid administration is excellent preparation for other types of college administration;
- 9) Financial aid work as a full-time job is sufficiently satisfying to be a life-time career for me.

Finally, the aid director's choice of financial aid as a career was analyzed as another variable. This was based on a direct question raised about his decision to remain in the field of financial aid as a career choice.

The study, therefore, tested the following hypotheses.

General null hypothesis: There are no significant differences among those directors of student financial aid ranked high, medium, and low on a scale measuring the importance of their positions in their own institutions in relation to selected characteristics pertaining to

both the directors themselves and their institutions, in relation to the degree of agreement or disagreement with selected statements concerning their positions in their own institutions, and in relation to their decisions to remain in the financial aid profession.

Specific null hypotheses:

1. Pertaining to the institution:

- a) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the size of their institutions.
- b) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the type of their institutions.
- c) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the method of control of their institutions.
- d) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the percentage of the total operational budget allocated by their institutions to student financial aid.

2. Pertaining to the director:

- a) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the age of the directors.
- b) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the sex of the directors.
- c) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low

in importance in their own institutions, when considering the percentage of the directors' working weeks devoted to financial aid.

- d) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the length of time the directors have held their current position.
- e) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the length of time the directors have worked in financial aid.
- f) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the length of time the directors have worked at their present institution.
- g) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the length of time the directors have worked in an institution of higher education.
- h) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering their educational backgrounds.
- i) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the extent of their formal training in financial aid, received prior to their entrance into the financial aid field.
- j) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the extent of their on-the-job training in financial aid, received subsequent to their

entrance into the financial aid field.

- k) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the number of books they have published on financial aid.
  - l) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the number of articles they have published on financial aid.
  - m) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the extent to which they have participated, in a leadership or teaching capacity, in financial aid seminars or workshops on a state, regional, national basis, or in connection with an institution of higher education.
  - n) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the extent of their membership in professional, educational organizations.
  - o) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering whether they presently hold office or have held office in the past in any professional, educational organizations.
3. Opinion variables: There are no significant differences among those directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the degree of their agreement or disagreement with the following statements.
- a) I have enough authority to do the job of financial aid director effectively.

- b) I have a large enough role in financial aid policy formulation in my institution.
  - c) My superiors have a clear picture of the kind of job I am doing in financial aid administration.
  - d) I have a large enough role in policy formulation in other matters in my institution.
  - e) I am recognized by others in my institution as holding an important administrative position.
  - f) My place in the administrative structure of my institution is adequate.
  - g) In comparison to the salaries of others in my institution, my salary is adequate.
  - h) The experience gained in financial aid administration is excellent preparation for other types of college administration.
  - i) Financial aid work as a full-time job is sufficiently satisfying to be a life-time career for me.
4. Career choice variable: There are no significant differences among those directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering their decisions whether or not to continue as financial aid directors.

With the kind of statistical information to be gathered in this study, it seemed most appropriate to use chi square in a contingency table. The method is one of the most useful means of hypothesis testing when dealing with the possible relationships of multiple variables. The statistical method is explained in J. P. Guilford's text on statistics



for psychology and education.<sup>1</sup>

### THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Once the criteria had been selected, the hypotheses to be tested determined, and the statistical method decided upon, the next step was to devise the best method of obtaining the data. For this an original questionnaire was constructed, designed to seek the factual information needed to test the hypotheses previously indicated.

Four drafts of the questionnaire were drawn up, before the instrument was sufficiently refined.<sup>2</sup> Every effort was made to make the questionnaire easy to answer. It was theorized that this would generate a greater response. For this reason, most questionnaire items were forced-choice items, that could be answered with a check mark. The only items that were not forced-choice were the name of the respondent's institution, his age, his title, his immediate supervisor's title, and the percentage of his institution's total

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<sup>1</sup>J. P. Guilford, Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education (4th ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965), pp. 234-242.

<sup>2</sup>A copy of the questionnaire used is provided in Appendix A.

operational budget allocated to the financial aid office. Each of these items were easily answerable with a number or a short phrase. The name of the institution was asked for follow-up purposes and so that published faculty salary data at the institution might be used in the analysis of the aid director's position in his own institution.

### SAMPLE SELECTION

One of the key areas of the study was the selection of the sample. Practical reasons dictated that a limit be put on the size of the group to be tested. As was indicated in Chapter I, the population to be tested was financial aid directors in the eleven states that make up the Midwest Association of Student Financial Aid Administrators. Even limiting this to directors at baccalaureate degree granting and baccalaureate and graduate degree granting institutions, the population size was 446. It is neither efficient, nor necessary to test this whole population. Consequently, a sample was chosen that would be representative of the total population.

Ensuring that the sample be representative, however, was the crucial problem. Merely taking a random sample of the 446 directors probably would not enable the sample to be as

representative as it would be if the sample were stratified according to size, type, and method of control of the institutions involved. This was done because the total population was considerably skewed in the direction of large public universities. There were, in other words, in the total population many more small, private four-year colleges than large, public universities. A purely random selection might not give, then, a sample with the same proportions as to size, type, and method of control as in the total population.

This point is one of importance. A sample that did not represent the population as to size, type, and method of control of the institutions might not give a true picture of the place of the financial aid director in Midwest institutions. It was theorized that there may be considerable differences in the role and function of the aid director in small institutions, as opposed to large institutions, private as opposed to public, and four-year colleges as opposed to universities. In order that the research might be able to discover these differences, if they exist, it was necessary to control for size, type, and method of control when selecting the sample.

A breakdown of the total population in the eleven

states of the Midwest Association of Student Financial Aid Administrators was the next step. The most reliable and comprehensive source on the listing of institutions of higher education in the United States is published yearly by the National Center for Educational Statistics under the Office of Education of the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The latest issue available at the time was for the 1970-1971 academic year.<sup>3</sup> All institutions of higher education in the United States, that offer at least a two-year program of college-level studies, are listed in this Directory. In addition, in order to be listed the institutions must meet one of the following three criteria: 1) accreditation by a nationally recognized accrediting agency, or approval by a State department of education or a State university; or 2) the reception of preaccredited status with a nationally recognized accrediting agency; or 3) reception of their credits by at least three institutions accredited by nationally recognized accrediting agencies.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>3</sup>U. S., Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics, Education Directory 1970-1971: Higher Education (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1971).

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. viii.

The Education Directory 1970-1971: Higher Education revealed the following breakdown of four-year colleges and universities for the eleven states of Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Ohio, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.

Table 1

Total Study Population

<u>Size of Institution:</u>	<u>No.</u>
Under 1,000 students	192
1,000 to 2,499	127
2,500 to 4,999	36
5,000 to 9,999	42
10,000 to 14,999	19
15,000 to 24,999	18
25,000 and over	10
Not reported	<u>2</u>
Total	446

<u>Type of Institution:</u>	<u>No.</u>
Baccalaureate degree granting only	278
Baccalaureate and graduate degree granting	<u>168</u>
Total	446

<u>Control of Institution:</u>	<u>No.</u>
Private	331
Public	<u>115</u>
Total	446

Using the above figures as the parameters of the population, a stratified random sample was taken. Every effort

was made to ensure that the sample size would be statistically ample. Sampling techniques, as discussed by Cochran and Deming,<sup>5</sup> were used. The number within each segment of the population was chosen, so that estimates of the hypothetical proportions would be within one per cent of the true proportions of the population ninety-five per cent of the time. In each situation, this was accomplished by utilizing true proportions that would require the largest sample. Although this approach is very conservative, it ensures that one would have a large enough return for inferential purposes. Table 2 shows the breakdown of the sample as compared to the total population.

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<sup>5</sup>William G. Cochran, Sampling Techniques (2nd ed.; New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1967) and William E. Deming, Some Theory of Sampling (New York: Dover Publications, Inc., 1966).

Table 2

Population and Sample

<u>Size of Institution:</u>	<u>Population</u>	<u>Sample</u>
Under 1,000 students	192	50
1,000 to 2,499	127	40
2,500 to 4,999	36	20
5,000 to 9,999	42	20
10,000 to 14,999	19	15
15,000 to 24,999	18	15
25,000 and over	10	10
Not reported	<u>2</u>	<u>--</u>
Total	446	170

<u>Type of Institution:</u>	<u>Population</u>	<u>Sample</u>
Baccalaureate degree granting only	278	88
Baccalaureate and graduate degree granting	<u>168</u>	<u>82</u>
Total	446	170

<u>Control of Institution:</u>	<u>Population</u>	<u>Sample</u>
Private	331	101
Public	<u>115</u>	<u>69</u>
Total	446	170

## THE PILOT STUDY

The purpose of the pilot study was two-fold. It was meant, first, to refine the questionnaire and, second, to test the willingness of the population to respond to the research instrument.

In order for a questionnaire to be an effective research tool, it must have several qualities. Questions should be clear, concrete, unambiguous, answerable. Questions should not be offensive to those questioned, or objectionable because of what is asked. In a forced-choice format, the choices should be clear-cut, mutually exclusive, and covering all alternatives. This was what the pilot study was meant to help accomplish. The directors of financial aid in the pilot study were asked to comment about the questionnaire items, to give their suggestions about other items to be added or items to be omitted. Finally, they were asked to indicate the amount of time it took them to answer the entire questionnaire. This was asked so that an average response time could be computed and communicated to those selected in the sample study. The hope was that the response time would be brief and thus help to induce those surveyed to respond.

The selection of aid directors to be part of the pilot study was made after the population sample had been selected. Only directors not chosen as part of the population sample were eligible for selection as part of the pilot study. As in the selection of the population sample, the selection was made at random and stratified according to size, type, and



method of control of the institution.

The pilot study group was divided into two sub-groups. Sub-group A was told the purpose of the study. The questionnaire items used as criteria in evaluating the aid directors in their institutions were communicated to this group. Sub group B was told only that the study was concerned with financial aid directors in eleven states of the Midwest. The intention was to compare the response rate of both sub-groups, to determine the advisability of communicating to the population sample the purpose of the research. A breakdown of the pilot study sub-groups is shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Pilot Study

<u>Size of Institution:</u>	<u>Sub-group A</u>	<u>Sub-group B</u>	<u>Total</u>
Under 1,000 students	9	9	18
1,000 to 2,499	6	6	12
2,500 to 4,999	4	4	8
5,000 to 9,999	6	6	12
10,000 to 14,999	2	2	4
15,000 to 24,999	1	1	2
25,000 and over	<u>-</u>	<u>-</u>	<u>-</u>
Total	28	28	56
<u>Type of Institution:</u>	<u>Sub-group A</u>	<u>Sub-group B</u>	<u>Total</u>
Baccalaureate degree granting only	14	14	28
Baccalaureate and graduate degree granting	<u>15</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>28</u>
Total	29	27	56
<u>Control of Institution:</u>	<u>Sub-group A</u>	<u>Sub-group B</u>	<u>Total</u>
Private	19	18	37
Public	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>19</u>
Total	28	28	56

The results of the pilot study indicated a general willingness on the part of aid directors to cooperate in the study research. This willingness seemed to be present whether or not they were told of the explicit purposes of the research. There was no appreciable difference between the response rate of Sub-group A and Sub-group B. In the initial mailing,

fifteen out of the twenty-eight subjects of Sub-group A responded, and eighteen subjects responded of the twenty-eight in Sub-group B. A follow-up letter netted an additional eight responses in Sub-group A, and four more responses in Sub-group B. One of the B responses was unuseable, however, because the position of financial aid director was vacant at that institution at that time. Total useable responses were almost evenly divided between both sub-groups. Table 4 gives the breakdown of responses by sub-group.

Table 4

Pilot Study Responses

<u>Size of Institution:</u>	<u>Sub-group A</u>		<u>Sub-group B</u>		<u>Total</u>	
	<u>Questioned</u>	<u>Responded</u>	<u>Questioned</u>	<u>Responded</u>	<u>Questioned</u>	<u>Responded</u>
Under 1,000	9	8	9	6	18	14
1,000 to 2,999	6	5	6	4	12	9
2,500 to 4,999	4	2	4	3	8	5
5,000 to 9,999	6	5	6	5	12	10
10,000 to 14,999	2	2	2	2	4	4
15,000 to 24,999	1	1	1	1	2	2
25,000 and over	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>
Total	28	23	28	21	56	44
<u>Type of Institution:</u>						
Baccalaureate degree granting only	13	11	15	11	28	22
Baccalaureate and graduate degree granting	<u>15</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>22</u>
Total	28	23	28	21	56	44
<u>Control of Institution:</u>						
Private	18	15	18	13	36	28
Public	<u>10</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>20</u>	<u>16</u>
Total	28	23	28	21	56	44

Directors of financial aid surveyed in the pilot study indicated a wide range of response time. Some said it took them only five minutes to answer the questionnaire, while others took thirty minutes or longer. One aid director took fifty minutes to answer all the questions. The average response time was seventeen minutes.

Experience with the pilot study and comments from some of the directors surveyed led to some changes in the questionnaire. No changes were made, however, in the first fifteen items.

The pilot study questionnaire asked only one question on the extent of the director's formal training in financial aid administration. Several responses on the pilot study made it clear that the question ought to be divided into the training prior to entering the financial aid field and on-the-job training after entering the field.

The pilot study questionnaire had asked in one question the extent of the director's publication of books and articles on financial aid. Responses indicated the advisability of separating the question into two, with one question for books and another for articles. The pilot study questionnaire

also contained an item on the extent of publication in the field of higher education, exclusive of financial aid. After the pilot study, this question was eliminated on the advice of the dissertation committee.

At the suggestion of one aid director in the pilot study, item twenty was added to the questionnaire. This item asks the extent of the director's participation, as a leader or teacher, in seminars, workshops, or classroom instruction on financial aid. It was felt that using this information as a variable would be helpful in understanding more about the aid director's involvement in the financial aid profession.

Responses in the pilot study indicated that the questions on rank and tenure had to be reworded. The pilot study had simply asked whether the respondent had or was eligible for rank and/or tenure. The question was misleading or, at least, could lead to misinformation. Some directors responded in the pilot study that they did have rank and/or tenure but not as financial aid directors, and, since the latter information only was what the question was intended to ask, the wording was changed on both items.

The pilot study questionnaire had had a question concerning the aid director's responsibility for administering

the different forms of aid. Specifically, the aid directors were asked whether any undergraduate or graduate financial aids, such as certain scholarship, loans, or part-time employment, were administered by offices other than the financial aid office. The information from this question was meant to be used as one of the criteria used to judge the aid director's position in his own institution. The supposition was that the aid director who administered the total aid program at his college or university was in a more favorable position than one who administered only part of the aid program. The supposition might well be true, but the information received from the pilot study was difficult to classify and evaluate. Even the small pilot study revealed a wide variety of situations in this regard. Small college directors usually administered all forms of aid. Directors at large universities seldom were responsible for all aid. In between, there were many possible combinations. On the advice of the dissertation committee, this item was eliminated from the final questionnaire.

Finally, the responses from aid directors concerning their participation in the formulation of both financial aid policy and other policy at their institutions made it clear that these questions had to be reworded. Since some directors

had more than one function in their institution, their participation sometimes stemmed from their non-financial aid function. For this reason, questions twenty-seven and twenty nine were made more explicit to ask their participation in policy formulation as financial aid directors.

Evaluation of the results of the pilot study indicated a general cooperation on the part of financial aid directors with the research, whether they knew the specific purposes of the research or not. For this reason, it was decided that no specific information be given to the directors surveyed in the population sample. Directors would only be told that the research was being done in the field of financial aid as part of the requirements of a doctoral program. Experience with the pilot study and some comments from directors surveyed led to considerable improvements in the questionnaire.

#### TESTING OF THE SAMPLE

Once the pilot study had been completed and evaluated and the questionnaire revisions accomplished, it became possible to begin the testing of the previously selected population sample. A direct mailing was sent to the 170 financial aid directors in the eleven states that made up the membership



of the Midwest Association of Student Financial Aid Administrators. The author had previously approached the president of that Association to solicit his support of the research. The president willingly gave his support and agreed to write a cover-letter of approval that would be sent along with the questionnaires. That letter, along with a letter of explanation from the author, was sent in the mailing to the aid directors sampled.<sup>6</sup> It was hoped that this support of the Midwest Association would improve the response rate on the questionnaires.

Two months later, a follow-up letter and another questionnaire were mailed to the directors who had not yet responded.<sup>7</sup> No additional attempts were made to solicit responses after that.

### SUMMARY

Chapter three has discussed the method of investigation followed in this study. The selection of the criteria by which

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<sup>6</sup>A copy of the author's covering letter is contained in Appendix C and a copy of the letter from the president of MASFAA is shown in Appendix B.

<sup>7</sup>Appendix D contains a copy of the follow-up letter.

to judge the importance of the aid director in his own institution was first discussed. Next, the hypotheses to be tested were enumerated. The statistical method employed to test these hypotheses was explained. Then, the development of the questionnaire was outlined. The population sample and how it was selected were discussed. The pilot study and its results were analyzed. Finally, the testing of the population sample and the follow-up procedures used were explained. Chapter four will discuss the results of the study.

## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Chapter four will detail the results of the study. First, the sample return will be analyzed to determine whether it was sufficient to be representative of the entire population. Then, the hypotheses will be examined for rejection or non-rejection. Finally, variables used in the study will be looked at in detail, to determine what, if anything, can be learned about the role of the financial aid director in his own institution.

### THE SAMPLE RETURN

The sample size selected was 170 institutions of higher education in the eleven states that make up the Midwest Association of Student Financial Aid Administrators. Questionnaires were sent to the directors of financial aid or those responsible for the administration of the financial aid program at their respective institutions. As a group, they proved most cooperative. There were 152 returned questionnaires, 150 of which, or over eighty-eight per cent, were useable. A

breakdown of the sample return is shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Sample Return

<u>Size of Institution:</u>	<u>Sample size</u>	<u>Return</u>
Under 1,000 students	50	40
1,000 to 2,499	40	34
2,500 to 4,999	20	20
5,000 to 9,999	20	19
10,000 to 14,999	15	16 <sup>1</sup>
15,000 to 24,999	15	13
25,000 and over	<u>10</u>	<u>8</u>
Total	170	150
<u>Type of Institution:</u>	<u>Sample size</u>	<u>Return</u>
Baccalaureate degree granting only	88	70
Baccalaureate and graduate degree granting	<u>82</u>	<u>80</u>
Total	170	150
<u>Control of Institution:</u>	<u>Sample size</u>	<u>Return</u>
Private	101	86
Public	<u>69</u>	<u>64</u>
Total	170	150
N = 170      R = 150		

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<sup>1</sup>The discrepancy in numbers is based on the fact that the grouping of institutions according to size in the sample chosen had to rely on published data about the size of the institutions for the 1970-1971 academic year. Questionnaire returns reported data for the Fall of 1972. Slight alterations resulted because the size of institutions (based on the number of full-time students) varies from year to year. As the numbers in the different rows indicate, however, the change was minimal.

A goodness of fit test using the chi square method was employed to determine whether the sample return was sufficient to be representative of the total population.<sup>2</sup> The test was done by comparing the sample return with the sample according to all three key variables: size, type, and method of control of the institutions.

When the size of the institutions was considered, the results indicated a high degree of reliability in the sample return. A chi square value of 3.684 with six degrees of freedom, ( $.80 > P > .70$ ) resulted. The sample return, then, is close enough to the dimensions of the chosen sample with respect to the size of the institutions to make it representative of the total population, assuming that the sample itself is representative of the total population.

In the other two variables, the results were not as satisfactory. Thus, the sample return seems not to be as representative of the total population. When comparing the sample with the return according to type of institution, a chi square value of 3.731 with one degree of freedom was obtained,

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<sup>2</sup>J. P. Guilford, Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education (4th ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965), pp. 243-250.

(.10 > P > .05). This was a result of a lower return from exclusively baccalaureate degree granting institutions. Similarly, in considering the method of control of the institution, the chi square value was 2.589 with one degree of freedom, (.20 > P > .10). Here, again, a lower return from private institutions indicates that some caution is called for when deciding whether the sample return is representative of the total population.

#### THE HYPOTHESES

As was indicated previously,<sup>3</sup> this study was designed to test the general null hypothesis that there are no significant differences among those directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low on a scale measuring the importance of their positions in their own institutions. Differences were analyzed in relation to selected characteristics pertaining to both the directors themselves and their institutions, in relation to the degree of agreement or disagreement with selected statements concerning their positions in their own institutions, and in relation to their decisions to remain in the financial aid profession.

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<sup>3</sup>Supra, p. 96 and 97.

This general null hypothesis was tested in twenty-nine specific null hypotheses. These specific hypotheses were grouped into four separate categories: 1) those relating to the institution of higher education; 2) those relating to the director of financial aid; 3) those relating to certain opinions of the financial aid director; and 4) the director's statement concerning his own career decision.

Before discussing the results of the hypothesis testing, however, it must be mentioned that the data was not as complete as had been hoped. Even though the useable returns from the sample numbered 150, not all of these 150 were able to be used in grouping the directors into the high, medium, and low categories. On forty-one directors of financial aid, information was incomplete. The incompleteness, however, stemmed in most cases not from non-response to a particular question, but from the fact that information was not available about teaching salaries at these institutions.

As was mentioned previously,<sup>4</sup> the author relied on published information from the American Association of University Professors to determine how the aid director's reported salary

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<sup>4</sup>Supra, p. 91.

compared with teaching salaries at the aid director's institution. The director was then ranked accordingly, from the instructor level to that of full professor. Only five of the 150 directors in the sample return failed to answer the question concerning their salary. Nine others did not respond to at least one of the other criteria questions. The remaining twenty-seven directors responded fully, but published information about teaching salaries at their institutions was not available. As will be clear from Table 6, most of the institutions about which incomplete information was received were small colleges (below 1,000 students), baccalaureate degree granting only, and private. These limitations should be kept in mind when considering the following hypotheses.



Table 6

Completeness of Sample

<u>Size of Institution:</u>	<u>Sample</u>	<u>Return</u>	<u>Complete</u>
Under 1,000 students	50	40	19
1,000 to 2,499	40	34	25
2,500 to 4,999	20	20	15
5,000 to 9,999	20	19	17
10,000 to 14,999	15	16	15
15,000 to 24,999	15	13	12
25,000 and over	<u>10</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>6</u>
Total	170	150	109

<u>Type of Institution:</u>	<u>Sample</u>	<u>Return</u>	<u>Complete</u>
Baccalaureate degree granting only	88	70	46
Baccalaureate and graduate degree granting	<u>82</u>	<u>80</u>	<u>63</u>
Total	170	150	109

<u>Control of Institution:</u>	<u>Sample</u>	<u>Return</u>	<u>Complete</u>
Private	101	86	54
Public	<u>69</u>	<u>64</u>	<u>55</u>
Total	170	150	109

N = 150                      R = 109

Specific Null Hypotheses:1. Pertaining to the institution:

- a) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions when considering the size of their institutions.

Size of institutions was estimated from the number of

full-time students in the institution. The chi square value found for the relationship between the ranking of directors and the size of the institution in which they work was 8.438 with 12 degrees of freedom, ( $.80 > P > .70$ ). The chi square value is low, but not by any means significant enough to reject the null hypothesis. Table 7 shows the distribution of the two variables.

Table 7

Ranking by Size of Institution

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Under 1,000 students	4	9	6	19
1,000 to 2,499	8	8	9	25
2,500 to 4,999	6	5	4	15
5,000 to 9,999	8	2	7	17
10,000 to 14,999	4	7	4	15
15,000 to 24,999	4	5	3	12
25,000 and over	<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>6</u>
Total	37	38	34	109

N = 109

R = 109

The numbers refer to the number of financial aid directors in each category. This is true in all subsequent tables.

- b) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the type of their institutions.

Since the study was limited to four-year colleges and universities only, this hypothesis tested the relationship

between the ranking of financial aid directors and the type of institution in which they worked: baccalaureate only or baccalaureate and graduate degree granting. Again, no significant relationship was discovered. A slight indication, however, was found, showing that directors from baccalaureate and graduate institutions were more often in the high ranks. The chi square value was 1.186 with two degrees of freedom,  $(.70 > P > .50)$ , showing that this very likely could be due to chance. Hypothesis 1.b was not rejected. Table 8 shows the breakdown.

Table 8

Ranking by Type of Institution

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Baccalaureate degree granting only	13	17	16	46
Baccalaureate and graduate degree granting	<u>24</u>	<u>21</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>63</u>
Total	37	38	34	109

N = 109    R = 109

- c) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the method of control of their institutions.

Whether the director was employed in a private or public institution was discovered to have a significant relationship with the ranking of the director. Directors in public institutions ranked higher than those in private institutions. The chi square value of this relationship was 7.602 with two degrees of freedom, ( $.05 > P > .02$ ). The null hypothesis can in this case be rejected. The relationship is illustrated in Table 9.

Table 9

Ranking by Control of Institution

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Private	13	18	23	54
Public	<u>24</u>	<u>20</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>55</u>
Total	37	38	34	109

N = 109    R = 109

- d) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the percentage of the total operational budget allocated by their institutions to student financial aid.

In order to test this hypothesis, the directors were asked what percentage of their institution's budget was allocated to financial aid. Of the 150 directors who responded, ninety of them, or sixty per cent, replied that they did not

know the percentage. Another eight did not answer the question. Only fifty-two directors out of the 150, or less than thirty-five per cent, reported a percentage. Percentages reported ranged from .003 per cent to a high of thirty-three per cent.

Any one of several explanations may account for this rather surprising ignorance on the part of these financial aid directors. It may be an indication that many colleges do not set financial aid commitments at a fixed percentage of their yearly expense budget. It may, on the other hand, be evidence that many financial aid directors have little knowledge or input into how much is spent on financial aid. Finally, it is possible that the question itself was ambiguous or misleading. Four of those not responding commented that the question was not clear. This item on the questionnaire was one of the few additions after the pilot study and, therefore, responses were not tested beforehand to ensure that the question was clearly stated.

Concerning the institution, therefore, the size of the institution, its type, and the percentage of its budget allocated to financial aid--these three variables were not found to be significantly related to the ranking of financial aid

directors. The method of control of the institution, however, was significantly related to rank. Directors from public institutions were more likely in the high group than directors from private institutions.

Fifteen variables relating to the director of financial aid will now be considered, to determine their relationship, if any, with the ranking of directors.

2. Pertaining to the director of financial aid:

- a) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the age of the directors.

The questionnaire revealed a wide range of ages among the directors of financial aid in the institutions sampled. The youngest director was twenty-four years of age and the oldest sixty-eight. The mean age was 41.8 years and the modal age was thirty-one years. These figures were drawn from the total 150 respondents, not just from the 109 respondents used in the rankings of directors into high, medium, and low groups.

The ages of directors were grouped in five-year intervals to test whether there was any significant relationship between age and ranking of directors. The chi square value resulting from the analysis was 9.763 with fourteen degrees of

freedom,  $(.80 > P > .70)$ . The null hypothesis was, therefore, not rejected. Table 10 shows the distribution.

Table 10

Ranking by Age of Directors

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Ages 25 - 29	4	2	3	9
Ages 30 - 34	4	10	8	22
Ages 35 - 39	9	5	4	18
Ages 40 - 44	5	6	5	16
Ages 45 - 49	4	4	6	14
Ages 50 - 54	3	4	4	11
Ages 55 - 59	4	2	3	9
Ages 60 - 65	<u>3</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>9</u>
Total	36	38	34	108

N = 109

R = 108

- b) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the sex of the directors.

The results of the study indicated that there were few women financial aid directors in the institutions surveyed in the eleven states of the Midwest. Of the 150 responding to the questionnaire only twenty-one or fourteen per cent were women. Men clearly dominate the profession, at least, at the director level.

In addition, there was a marked difference in the ranking of men and women directors. Women were much more

likely to be in the low category of importance in their own institution. The chi square value for the comparison of these two variables was 6.871 with two degrees of freedom, ( $.05 > P > .02$ ). The null hypothesis can be rejected, therefore, at the five per cent level of confidence. Table 11 shows the ranking of directors by sex.

Table 11

Ranking by Sex of Directors

	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Total</u>
High	36	1	37
Medium	33	5	38
Low	<u>26</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>34</u>
Total	95	14	109

N = 109

R = 109

- c) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the percentage of the directors' working weeks devoted to financial aid.

In the 1960's, Nash and Lazarsfeld published a national study of financial aid directors at four-year institutions. Although the study was published in 1968, the data was accumulated in 1965. The study revealed a large number of part-time



administrators in the financial aid profession.<sup>5</sup> A part-timer was defined as anyone who spent less than seventy per cent of his working week on financial aid. According to that definition, Nash and Lazarsfeld found that sixty-three per cent of directors were part-time and only sixteen per cent spent 100 per cent of their working week on financial aid matters.

It is certainly an indication of the growth of the financial aid field that the present study, although limited to the Midwest, shows that 122 of the 150 respondents, or eighty-one per cent, are full-timers according to Nash and Lazarsfeld's definition. Of that number, however, ninety-one, or over sixty per cent spend 100 per cent of their working week on financial aid. Table 12 shows the percentage of time the directors spend on financial aid.

Table 12

Percentage of Directors' Working Week

<u>Percentage of working week</u>	<u>Number of Directors</u>
100%	91
70 - 99%	31
30 - 69%	23
Less than 30%	<u>5</u>
Total	150

N = 150

R = 150

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<sup>5</sup>George Nash and Paul F. Lazarsfeld, New Administrator on Campus: A Study of the Director of Financial Aid (New York: Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University, 1968), p. 3.2.

When the question was asked whether there was a relationship between the amount of time spent on financial aid and the ranking of the directors, the answer was a strong response of yes. Those who spent 100 per cent of their time on financial aid were less likely to be in the high group, while part-timers more often were found in the high group. The findings must be interpreted with caution, however, because the number of part-timers in the analysis was small. The chi square value found was 13.022 with six degrees of freedom, ( $.05 > P > .02$ ). The null hypothesis was rejected. The distribution is shown in Table 13.

Table 13

Ranking by Percentage of Time Spent on Financial Aid

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
100% of working week	17	26	26	69
70 - 99%	12	6	8	26
30 - 69%	7	6	0	13
Less than 30%	<u>1</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>
Total	37	38	34	109

N = 109

R = 109

- d) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the length of time the directors have held their current position.

Length of time in their present positions of financial aid director was assumed to have a possible bearing on the degree of importance financial aid directors had in their own institutions. The assumption was that the longer a director held that position in a given institution, the more important he might be to that institution, as measured by the already established criteria.

The responses, however, did not show this relationship to be true. A resultant chi square of only 5.029 with eight degrees of freedom, ( $.80 > P > .70$ ) made rejection of the null hypothesis impossible. The breakdown of the responses is shown in Table 14.

Table 14

Ranking by Length of Time in Present Position

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
First year	4	3	5	12
One to three years	9	11	11	31
Three to five years	5	8	5	18
Five to ten years	11	12	6	29
Ten years or longer	<u>8</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>19</u>
Total	37	38	34	109

N = 109

R = 109

- e) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering

the length of time the directors have worked in financial aid.

Again, the assumption was that the longer the director worked in financial aid, the more of an expert in his profession he would become and the more likely it would be that he would enjoy a more important position in his own institution. Although the responses showed some indications that this was true, the relationship between these two variables was not very significant. The chi square value was 9.276 with eight degrees of freedom, ( $.50 > P > .30$ ). The null hypothesis, therefore, was not rejected. The responses are shown in Table 15.

Table 15

Ranking by Length of Time in Financial Aid

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
First year	1	1	2	4
One to three years	4	7	4	15
Three to five years	4	6	11	21
Five to ten years	18	18	10	46
Ten years or longer	<u>10</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>23</u>
Total	37	38	34	109

N = 109

R = 109

- f) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the length of time the directors have worked at their present institutions.

Length of service at the same institution may possibly have a bearing on how important a financial aid director is considered at that institution. That hypothesis was tested, but the results were inconclusive. No significant relationship was discovered between length of time spent working for the same institution and the degree of importance of the director of financial aid. The chi square value found was 4.669 with eight degrees of freedom, ( $.80 > P > .70$ ). The null hypothesis was not rejected. The distribution of responses is shown in Table 16.

Table 16

Ranking by Length of Time in Director's Present Institution

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
First year	2	2	2	6
One to three years	4	6	7	17
Three to five years	5	5	8	18
Five to ten years	13	15	8	36
Ten years or longer	<u>13</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>32</u>
Total	37	38	34	109

N = 109

R = 109

- g) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance when considering the length of time the directors have worked in an institution of higher education.

This null hypothesis tested the assumption that length

of time employed in any institution of higher education may have a bearing on the ranking of financial aid directors. Most of the directors responding had spent at least three years working in higher education. There were some indications that those who had been in higher education five years or longer were more likely to be ranked higher than those with less years of service. The relationship was not significant enough, however, to reject the null hypothesis. The chi square value was 9.045 with eight degrees of freedom, ( $.50 > P > .30$ ). Table 17 shows the distribution.

Table 17

Ranking by Length of Time in Higher Education

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
First year	1	0	1	2
One to three years	0	4	2	6
Three to five years	4	5	9	18
Five to ten years	17	15	11	43
Ten years or longer	<u>15</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>40</u>
Total	37	38	34	109

N = 109

R = 109

- h) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions when considering their educational backgrounds.

Most directors of financial aid responding had masters degrees or were in masters' programs. The study revealed,

however, a very significant relationship between the educational background of directors and their ranking in importance. Directors with doctorates or in doctoral programs much more often were in the high group, while, conversely, those directors with poorer educational backgrounds were more likely to be in the low group. The relationship here was the most significant of all the variables analyzed. The chi square value was 35.905 with ten degrees of freedom, ( $.001 > P$ ). The null hypothesis was rejected with great confidence. The distribution is shown in Table 18.

Table 18

Ranking by Educational Background

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Doctorate	7	1	0	8
In doctoral program	7	2	1	10
Master's degree	17	23	13	53
In master's program	4	2	6	12
Baccalaureate degree	1	9	7	17
No baccalaureate degree	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>9</u>
Total	37	38	34	109

N = 109      R = 109

- i) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the extent of their formal training in financial aid, received prior to their entrance into the financial aid field.

The next two null hypotheses are concerned with the amount of training in financial aid a director has received. Hypothesis 2.i examines the relationship between the extent of his training prior to entering the field of financial aid and his ranking according to the designated criteria. The supposition was that the greater the amount of training in financial aid, the higher would be his ranking. The results did not support this. The chi square value was 3.811 with eight degrees of freedom, ( $.90 > P > .80$ ). The null hypothesis was, therefore, not rejected. Table 19 shows how even the distribution was.

Table 19

Ranking by Training in Financial Aid Prior to  
Entering the Field

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Internship in a degree program	1	0	1	2
Some exposure in degree program	2	2	2	6
Attended workshop	15	13	11	39
No formal training	16	17	13	46
Other	<u>3</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>16</u>
Total	37	38	34	109

N = 109

R = 109



- j) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the extent of their on-the-job training in financial aid, received subsequent to their entrance into the financial aid field.

As in the previous null hypothesis, this one supposes that the greater one's training in the financial aid profession, the greater the ranking in importance in one's own institution. Also, like the previous hypothesis the results did not support that supposition. The chi square value for this relationship was 13.118 with twelve degrees of freedom, ( $.50 > P > .30$ ). Again, this null hypothesis was not rejected. The distribution is shown in Table 20.

Table 20

Ranking by On-the-Job Training in Financial Aid

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Internship in a degree program	3	0	0	3
Some exposure in degree program	0	1	0	1
Attended several workshops	18	25	16	59
Attended occasional workshops	6	7	7	20
Attended one workshop	3	1	2	6
Learned on one's own	6	3	7	16
Other	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>4</u>
Total	37	38	34	109

N = 109

R = 109

- k) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institution, when considering the number of books they have published on financial aid.

This hypothesis, as well as the next two, test the relationship between the ranking of aid directors and the extent of their involvement in the financial aid profession. Involvement was measured in three ways: the publication of books on financial aid, the writing of scholarly articles in financial aid journals, and the teaching of financial aid through educational courses, seminars, or workshops. Does involvement in the profession have a bearing upon the ranking of aid directors?

The answer in the first instance was that no conclusion could be reached from the data. Too few directors reported having published books on financial aid. Even though the three who reported any publications were in the high group, the number was too small to produce a significant finding. The chi square value was 6.087 with six degrees of freedom, ( $.50 > P > .30$ ). The hypothesis was not rejected. Table 21 shows the breakdown.

Table 21

Ranking by Publication of Books on Financial Aid

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Frequently published	1	0	0	1
Occasionally published	1	0	0	1
Published on one occasion	1	0	0	1
Never published	<u>33</u>	<u>37</u>	<u>34</u>	<u>104</u>
Total	36	37	34	107

N = 109

R = 107

- 1) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the number of articles they have published on financial aid.

The second test of involvement in the financial aid profession revealed more publication on the part of aid directors. Indications were that those who published articles were more likely to be ranked higher, but the chi square value was not high enough to reject the null hypothesis. The value shown was 12.092 with six degrees of freedom, ( $.10 > P > .05$ ). The distribution is shown in Table 22.

Table 22

Ranking by Publication of Articles on Financial Aid

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Frequently published	2	0	0	2
Occasionally published	4	3	1	8
Published on one occasion	5	0	2	7
Never published	<u>26</u>	<u>35</u>	<u>31</u>	<u>92</u>
Total	37	38	34	109

N = 109

R = 109

- m) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the extent to which they have participated, in a leadership or teaching capacity, in financial aid seminars or workshops on a state, regional, national basis or in connection with an institution of higher education.

The financial aid profession has a very specialized expertise. It is a profession that is also rapidly changing. Most of these changes can be attributed to the federal government. New laws and new procedures relating to the federal financial aid programs are almost an annual occurrence. The personnel of the United States Office of Education do much to keep aid officers abreast of these changes. Most of the training of aid officers, however, falls into the hands of other aid officers, the recognized experts in the field. They conduct the seminars and workshops that train new personnel

and keep experienced directors abreast of the latest changes.

How do these leaders rank in importance in their institutions? Hypothesis 2.m attempts to measure this. The results of the analysis indicate a significant relationship with this kind of leadership role and the ranking of aid directors. The leaders in these workshops or seminars were more likely to be in the high group. The chi square value for the relationship was 13.164 with six degrees of freedom, ( $.05 > P > .02$ ). The null hypothesis can, therefore, be rejected. The distribution is shown in Table 23.

Table 23

Ranking by Leadership Participation in Financial Aid Workshops

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Frequent participation	10	7	2	19
Occasional participation	17	12	9	38
One occasion	2	3	5	10
Never	<u>8</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>42</u>
Total	37	38	34	109

N = 109

R = 109

- n) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the extent of their membership in professional, educational organizations.

Total questionnaire returns indicated that very few of

the financial aid directors sampled were not members of any professional, educational organization. Only three directors, or two per cent, were non-members. The vast majority belonged to at least a state financial aid organization. Most of the directors held membership in a state, regional, and national financial aid organization. Table 24 shows the total responses of the sample. The large total is an indication that most directors belonged to more than one organization.

Table 24

Membership in Professional Organizations

<u>Organization</u>	<u>Number of Directors</u>
State financial aid organization	144
Regional financial aid organization	123
National financial aid organization	106
National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (N.A.S.P.A.)	24
American College Personnel Association (A.C.P.A.)	12
All other organizations	18
Not a member of any organization	3
No answer	<u>3</u>
Total	433

N = 150

R = 433

In order to test the relationship of membership with the ranking of aid directors, membership in a state financial aid organization was used solely. This was necessary because multiple responses could not be used in the analysis. In addition, the sample returns showed that all directors who

were members of national and regional organizations were also members of a state organization.

The analysis revealed a chi square value of 3.807 with four degrees of freedom, ( $.50 > P > .30$ ). The chi square value was not sufficient to enable the null hypothesis to be rejected. The distribution is shown in Table 25.

Table 25

Ranking by Membership in Professional Organizations

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Member of state financial aid organization	37	36	34	107
Member of N.A.S.P.A.	0	1	0	1
Member of no organization	<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>
Total	37	38	34	109

N = 109

R = 109

- o) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering whether they presently hold office or have held office in the past in any professional, educational organizations.

Hypothesis 2.0 tests the supposition that a significant relationship exists between the ranking of financial aid directors and holding of office in professional, educational organizations. The office holding may in this case be either present or past.

The distribution of responses showed some indication that these two variables were related. Office holders, present or past, tended more often to be in the high group, as compared to those who had never held office. The chi square was not high enough, however, to reject the null hypothesis. Chi square was 10.622 with eight degrees of freedom, ( $.30 > P > .20$ ). Table 26 shows the distribution.

Table 26

Ranking by Office Holding in Professional Organizations

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Never held office	10	22	18	50
Officer in a state financial aid organization	17	12	12	41
Officer in a regional financial aid organization	4	2	1	7
Officer in a national financial aid organization	4	1	1	6
Officer in another organization	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>4</u>
Total	37	38	33	108

N = 109

R = 108

Fifteen null hypotheses were tested relating to the director of financial aid. Eleven were not rejected. No significant relationship was found between the ranking of aid directors and any one of the following variables: age of the director, the amount of time he has spent in his present position, the time he has spent in financial aid, the extent of



time in his present institution, the length of time he has spent employed in higher education, the extent of his training in financial aid received prior to entering the field, the extent of his on-the-job training in financial aid, the extent to which he has published books on financial aid, the amount of his publications in educational journals, his membership in professional, educational organizations, and his holding of office in professional, educational organizations.

Four of the fifteen null hypotheses relating to the director were rejected. The ranking of aid directors was found to have a significant relationship to the sex of the director. Men ranked higher than women in the criteria considered. The percentage of his working week a director spent on financial aid also was related to how he ranked. Part-time financial aid directors ranked higher than full-timers. The extent of a director's educational background was another variable significantly related to rank. The more extensive the director's formal education, the higher was his ranking. Finally, directors who participated as leaders in financial aid workshops, seminars, and the like were more likely to be ranked higher than directors who were not involved in their profession.

The following null hypotheses analyzed the relationship between the ranking of directors of financial aid and certain expressed opinions of those directors. The opinions of the director sought concerned, in general, their satisfaction with their roles as financial aid directors in their own institutions.

3. Opinion variables:

There are no significant differences among those directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the degree of their agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

- a) I have enough authority to do the job of financial aid director effectively.

The authority of the financial aid director to do his job effectively, or at least his subjective feelings about that authority, is basic to any satisfaction a director may feel about his role in his own institution. The assumption of this first null hypothesis was that directors expressing satisfaction with the amount of authority they possess would rank in the high group. In other words, there would be a relationship between the ranking of directors and their satisfaction with the amount of authority connected with their positions.

Responses to this question indicated a high degree of

satisfaction among directors with their authority to do their jobs effectively. Of the total number of directors responding eighty-eight, or fifty-nine per cent, strongly agreed with the statement. Another fifty-one directors, or thirty four per cent, moderately agreed. Only nine directors, or six per cent, voiced any degree of disagreement with the statement. Table 27 shows the total responses to this statement.

Table 27

Responses on Opinion about Authority

<u>Opinion</u>	<u>Number of Directors</u>
Strong agreement	88
Moderate agreement	51
Moderate disagreement	6
Strong disagreement	3
No answer	<u>2</u>
Total	150

N = 150

R = 148

There were definite indications, however, that the degree of agreement with the statement was related to the ranking of directors. Directors in the high group were much more likely to agree strongly with the statement than those in the medium or low group. The chi square for the relationship was 11.757 with six degrees of freedom, ( $.10 > P > .05$ ). That was not sufficient, however, to reject the null hypothesis at the five per cent level of confidence. Table 28 indicates the

distribution of the two variables

Table 28

Ranking by Opinion about Authority

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Directors strongly agreeing	29	23	13	65
Directors moderately agreeing	7	12	16	35
Directors moderately disagreeing	1	1	2	4
Directors strongly disagreeing	<u>0</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>
Total	37	38	32	107

N = 109      R = 107

- b) I have a large enough role in financial aid policy formulation in my institution.

The second opinion solicited of the directors concerned their role in financial aid policy formulation in their own institutions. Again, directors voiced strong satisfaction with that role. Eighty six, or over fifty-seven per cent, strongly agreed with the statement. Another forty-nine, or over thirty-two per cent, moderately agreed. That left only thirteen directors, or a little over eight per cent, who showed any disagreement with the statement. Table 29 shows the breakdown of directors responding to the question.

Table 29

Response on Opinion about Role in Financial Aid Policy

<u>Opinion</u>	<u>Number of Directors</u>
Strong agreement	86
Moderate agreement	49
Moderate disagreement	10
Strong disagreement	3
No answer	<u>2</u>
Total	150

N = 150      R = 148

When the degree of agreement or disagreement was analyzed with the ranking of directors, there were indications that those in the high group were more likely to be strongly satisfied with their roles in financial aid policy formulation. The chi square was not sufficiently high, however, to reject the null hypothesis. The chi square was 7.697 with six degrees of freedom, ( $.30 > P > .20$ ). Table 30 shows the analysis of these two variables.

Table 30

Ranking by Opinion about Role in Financial Aid Policy

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Directors strongly agreeing	27	21	15	63
Directors moderately agreeing	9	13	12	34
Directors moderately disagreeing	1	2	4	7
Directors strongly disagreeing	<u>0</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>
Total	37	38	32	107

N = 109      R = 107

- c) My superiors have a clear picture of the kind of job I am doing in financial aid administration.

Nash and Lazarsfeld's 1968 study found that administrators who felt that their superiors knew what they were doing in financial aid were much more satisfied with their jobs and much more satisfied with their roles in their institutions.<sup>6</sup> This hypothesis tests the assumption that those who agree with this statement will more likely be among those who rank highest according to the chosen criteria.

Although the majority of directors responding agreed at least moderately with the statement, the degree of agreement was not as strong as the two previous opinion questions. Forty-eight directors, or thirty-two per cent, strongly agreed that their superiors had a clear picture of the kind of job they were doing in financial aid. Sixty directors, or forty per cent, only moderately agreed. A sizeable number felt their superiors did not clearly know what they were doing in financial aid. This was true in thirty-eight cases or slightly over twenty-five per cent of the directors in the sample. Table 31 shows the responses to the opinion question.

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<sup>6</sup> Ibid., p. 7.19.

Table 31

Responses on Opinion about Superior's Knowledge

<u>Opinion</u>	<u>Number of Directors</u>
Strong agreement	48
Moderate agreement	60
Moderate disagreement	30
Strong disagreement	8
No opinion	1
No answer	<u>3</u>
Total	150

N = 150

R = 147

In the analysis of these opinions with the ranking of directors, there was a definite indication that directors in the high group more often agreed with the statement than the medium and low groups and the degree of their agreement was greater. The chi square value from the analysis was 12.556 with six degrees of freedom, ( $.10 > P > .05$ ). The value was not sufficient to reject the null hypothesis at the five per cent level of confidence. The distribution of the two variables is shown in Table 32.

Table 32

Ranking by Opinion about Superior's Knowledge

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Directors strongly agreeing	14	11	7	32
Directors moderately agreeing	16	18	8	42
Directors moderately disagreeing	5	6	14	25
Directors strongly disagreeing	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>7</u>
Total	37	37	32	106

N = 109

R = 106

- d) I have a large enough role in policy formulation in other matters in my institution.

The opinions of aid directors concerning their role in policy other than financial aid policy were more varied than in the previous opinion questions. Directors evidenced much less satisfaction with their role in other institutional policy than they had about their role in financial aid policy. Nevertheless, the majority did agree with the statement. Thirty-five directors, or twenty-three per cent, strongly agreed and fifty-three, or thirty-five per cent, moderately agreed. A sizeable number, forty-eight directors or thirty-two per cent, evidenced at least some dissatisfaction with their role in institutional policy other than financial aid policy. The responses to this opinion question are contained in Table 33.



Table 33

Responses on Opinion about Role in Other Policy

<u>Opinion</u>	<u>Number of Directors</u>
Strong agreement	35
Moderate agreement	53
Moderate disagreement	30
Strong disagreement	18
No opinion	10
No answer	<u>4</u>
Total	150

N = 150      R = 146

When the director's opinions about their role in other policy were analyzed against the ranking of the directors, a definite relationship was found between their rank and their opinions on this topic. Directors in the high group were much more likely to agree with the statement. The low group were more likely to disagree or voice no opinion. The chi square value for the relationship of these two variables was 15.726 with eight degrees of freedom,  $(.05 > P > .02)$ . The null hypothesis was, therefore, rejected. The distribution is shown in Table 34.

Table 34

Ranking by Opinion about Role in Other Policy

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Directors strongly agreeing	12	10	3	25
Directors moderately agreeing	16	16	9	41
Directors moderately disagreeing	6	7	9	22
Directors strongly disagreeing	3	4	7	14
Directors voicing no opinion	<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
Total	37	38	32	107

N = 109

R = 107

- e) I am recognized by others in my institution as holding an important administrative position.

Results of this opinion question showed that directors of financial aid think that others in their institution look on them as holding an important administrative position. Three quarters of the sample agreed with the statement, although most of the agreeers voiced moderate agreement. Table 35 shows the distribution of the responses.

Table 35

Responses on Opinion about Recognition by Others

<u>Opinion</u>	<u>Number of Directors</u>
Strong agreement	44
Moderate agreement	69
Moderage disagreement	19
Strong disagreement	12
No opinion	3
No answer	<u>3</u>
Total	150

N = 150

R = 147

The assumption in the null hypothesis was that those agreeing with the statement would most likely rank in the high group. In other words, aid directors who felt that others recognized them as holding an important administrative position would more likely be those who enjoyed a position of importance in their institution.

The results indicated that directors in the high group more often agreed with the statement, but the chi square value was not high enough to reject the null hypothesis. The chi square was 9.772 with eight degrees of freedom, ( $.30 > P > .20$ ). The distribution is shown in Table 36.

Table 36

Ranking by Opinion about Recognition by Others

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Directors strongly agreeing	14	10	8	32
Directors moderately agreeing	20	21	13	54
Directors moderately disagreeing	1	4	6	11
Directors strongly disagreeing	2	3	4	9
Directors voicing no opinion	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>
Total	37	38	32	107

N = 109

R = 107

- f) My place in the administrative structure of my institution is adequate.

The null hypothesis in this case tests the relationship between the director's rank and his degree of satisfaction with his place in the administrative structure of his institution. The sample responses, again, show that well over fifty per cent of the directors agree at least moderately with the statement. Fifty-six directors, or thirty-seven per cent, strongly agree. Fifty-four, or thirty-six per cent, moderately agree. Thirty-seven directors, or twenty-four per cent, voiced some degree of disagreement with the statement. Table 37 shows the responses.

Table 37

Responses on Opinion about Place in the

Administrative Structure

<u>Opinion</u>	<u>Number of Directors</u>
Strong agreement	56
Moderate agreement	54
Moderate disagreement	24
Strong disagreement	13
No opinion	1
No answer	<u>2</u>
Total	150

N = 150

R = 148

A test of the relationship between the degree of agreement or disagreement with this statement and the ranking of directors showed no significant relationship. The chi square value found was 6.741 with eight degrees of freedom,

(.70 > P > .50). The null hypothesis, therefore, was not rejected. The distribution is shown in Table 38.

Table 38

Ranking by Opinion about Place in the  
Administrative Structure

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Directors agreeing strongly	13	13	9	35
Directors agreeing moderately	13	19	12	44
Directors disagreeing moderately	8	3	6	17
Directors disagreeing strongly	3	3	4	10
Directors voicing no opinion	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>
Total	37	38	32	107

N = 109

R = 107

- g) In comparison to the salaries of others in my institution, my salary is adequate.

Opinions voiced on this statement were more evenly spread than on the previous opinion questions. Still, a sizeable majority of aid directors evidenced at least moderate satisfaction with their salaries. The degrees of agreement or disagreement are shown in Table 39.

Table 39

Responses on Opinion about Salary

<u>Opinion</u>	<u>Number of Directors</u>
Strong agreement	29
Moderate agreement	52
Moderate disagreement	36
Strong disagreement	20
No opinion	10
No answer	<u>3</u>
Total	150

N = 150

R = 147

The null hypothesis tested the relationship between ranking of directors and their degree of agreement or disagreement with the statement concerning their salaries. It was assumed that the high group would show greater satisfaction with their salaries. This did not prove true, or at least it was not shown to be true from the chi square analysis. Satisfaction with salary seemed to bear no relationship to the ranking of aid directors. The chi square value found was 9.469 with eight degrees of freedom, ( $.50 > P > .30$ ). The null hypothesis was not rejected. Table 40 shows the distribution of responses according to ranking of directors.

Table 40

Ranking by Opinion about Salary

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Directors agreeing strongly	9	9	3	21
Directors agreeing moderately	12	18	10	40
Directors disagreeing moderately	9	8	9	26
Directors disagreeing strongly	5	2	7	14
Directors voicing no opinion	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>6</u>
Total	37	38	32	107

N = 109      R = 107

- h) The experience gained in financial aid administration is excellent preparation for other types of college administration.

A surprising eighty-four per cent, or 126 of the 150 directors in the sample agreed with this statement, showing fairly positive feelings about financial aid administration. Their responses are shown in Table 41.

Table 41

Responses on Opinion about Usefulness ofFinancial Aid Experience

<u>Opinion</u>	<u>Number of Directors</u>
Strong agreement	64
Moderate agreement	62
Moderate disagreement	11
Strong disagreement	3
No opinion	7
No answer	<u>3</u>
Total	150

N = 150      R = 147

The null hypothesis in this case tests the relationship between the responses to this question and the ranking of aid directors. The chi square value did not prove high enough to show any significant relationship. The chi square value was 7.061 with eight degrees of freedom, ( $.70 > P > .50$ ). The null hypothesis was not rejected. The distribution of the two variables is shown in Table 42.

Table 42

Ranking by Opinion about Usefulness of

Financial Aid Experience

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Directors strongly agreeing	15	18	11	44
Directors moderately agreeing	16	17	13	46
Directors moderately disagreeing	3	1	6	10
Directors strongly disagreeing	1	0	1	2
Directors voicing no opinion	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>5</u>
Total	37	38	32	107

N = 109    R = 107

- i) Financial aid work as a full-time job is sufficiently satisfying to be a life-time career for me.

Again, satisfaction with the financial aid field is shown in responses to this statement. Seventy-two per cent of the directors responding, or a total of 108, agreed that financial aid administration was satisfying as a career. Only thirty-four, or twenty-two per cent of the total, disagreed



with the statement. Table 43 shows the degrees of agreement or disagreement.

Table 43

Responses on Opinion about Financial Aid as a  
Satisfying Career

<u>Opinion</u>	<u>Number of Directors</u>
Strong agreement	56
Moderate agreement	52
Moderate disagreement	24
Strong disagreement	10
No opinion	4
No answer	<u>4</u>
Total	150

N = 150

R = 146

When the above responses were analyzed against the ranking of directors, no significant relationship was discovered. Satisfaction with financial aid administration as a career was fairly evenly spread through the three classes of directors. The chi square value for the two variables was 7.159 with eight degrees of freedom, ( $.70 > P > .50$ ). The null hypothesis was not rejected. The distribution of responses by rank is shown in Table 44.

Table 44

Ranking by Opinion about Financial AidAs a Satisfying Career

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Directors strongly agreeing	17	15	14	46
Directors moderately agreeing	12	15	11	38
Directors moderately disagreeing	3	6	6	15
Directors strongly disagreeing	3	1	1	5
Directors voicing no opinion	<u>2</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>2</u>
Total	37	37	32	106

N = 109

R = 106

Nine opinions of aid directors were analyzed against their ranking as high, medium, or low. In eight of those opinion responses, no significant relationship was shown between the degree of agreement or disagreement and the rank of aid directors. How directors felt about their authority to do their jobs effectively, their role in financial aid policy in their institutions, their superiors' knowledge of their job performance, their recognition by their own colleagues, their place in the administrative structure of their institution, their satisfaction with their salaries, their opinion of financial aid work as a preparation for other administration and as a satisfying career--none of these opinions was found to be significantly related to the ranking of aid directors.

One opinion tested was shown, however, to be related

to the ranking of aid directors. When asked to voice their agreement or disagreement with the statement about their role in institutional policy other than financial aid policy, aid directors in the high group were much more likely to agree with the statement than the low group. Conversely, the low group more often disagreed with the statement.

#### 4. Career Choice Variable

There are no significant differences among those directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering their decisions whether or not to continue as financial aid directors.

A financial aid director's decision to choose financial aid work as a career is a strong indicator of the satisfaction he feels in his chosen profession. It may also be an indication of his satisfaction with his role in his own institution. The assumption of the final null hypothesis is that career choice may be linked with the ranking of aid directors according to the criteria measuring their importance in their own institutions.

When questioned about their career choice, a substantial majority of aid directors responded that they had chosen to remain in financial aid as a career. An even sixty per

cent made this choice. Of the remaining forty per cent, twenty-two per cent were undecided about their career choice and only fourteen per cent had chosen not to remain in financial aid. The remaining few did not answer the question.

When these career choices were analyzed against the ranking of directors, no significant relationship between the two variables was discovered. The chi square value found was 1.659 with four degrees of freedom, ( $.80 > P > .70$ ). The null hypothesis was not rejected. The relationship between career choice and rank is shown in Table 45.

Table 45

Ranking by Career Choice

	<u>High</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>Total</u>
Directors choosing financial aid as a career	26	25	20	71
Directors not choosing financial aid as a career	5	5	3	13
Directors undecided	<u>5</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>21</u>
Total	36	38	31	105

N = 109

R = 105

The general null hypothesis of the study can be rejected. Some significant differences have been found between financial aid directors ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions. Aid directors in the high group generally work in public institutions rather than private.

They are more often males and more often part-time administrators of financial aid, i.e. less than seventy per cent of their working week is spent in financial aid. More often also, the high group financial aid director has a doctorate or is in a doctoral program. He is also to a greater degree involved in the financial aid profession as a leader or teacher in financial aid workshops or seminars. Finally, the aid director in the high group is more likely to be satisfied with his role in his own institution in policy formulation in policy other than financial aid policy.

Although the evidence was not highly certain and the null hypotheses were not rejected, there were indications, however, that other things were true of aid directors in the high group. They were more likely to publish articles on financial aid than directors in the low group. Also, a director in the high group was more likely to feel satisfied with the amount of authority he had to perform his functions as aid director and he was more likely to agree that his superior had a clear idea of the job he was doing in financial aid.

#### THE CRITERIA VARIABLES TAKEN INDIVIDUALLY

The study, in addition to testing the null hypotheses,

revealed much information about financial aid directors in the eleven member states of the Midwest Association of Student Financial Aid Administrators. That information will now be looked at in detail.

As was explained in Chapter three, seven variables formed the basis for the ranking of aid directors in the high, medium, and low categories. These criteria variables, as they shall be called, were the following: 1) to whom the aid director reports in the organizational structure of his institution; 2) the aid director's level of salary; 3) whether or not he holds faculty rank; 4) whether or not he has tenure as aid director; 5) the degree of his involvement in financial aid policy in his own institution; 6) whether or not he is involved in other policy in his own institution; and 7) the degree of his involvement in other policy in his own institution. These seven criteria variables were analyzed individually against the variables relating to the institution, the director, certain opinions of the director, and his career choice. This section will look at only the significant relationships between these criteria variables and the other variables. When the relationship between two variables is not discussed, it is because it was found to be not significant.

### Size of Institution:

The size of the aid director's institution was significantly related to several other variables: the place of the aid director in the administrative structure of his institution, the level at which the director is paid, the degree of involvement of the director in financial aid policy at his institution, and whether or not the director is involved in policy formulation in his institution in matters other than financial aid.

When the size of institution was analyzed against the director's place in the administrative structure, it was discovered that these two variables were significantly related. The smaller the institution, the more likely the director would be higher up in the administrative structure. In institutions below 5,000 students in size, the aid director most likely either reports directly to the president or is once removed from the president. In institutions larger than 5,000 students, directors are most often either once or twice removed from the president. This is a clear indication that the administrative structure of the institution is related to its size. The larger the institution, the more extensive the structure and the lower down the administrative ladder the aid

director is located.

The level of pay of aid directors was also found to be related to institutional size. In the smaller institutions, directors were more likely to be paid at the lower levels, such as instructor or assistant professor. In the larger institutions, the aid director's pay was more usually at the associate or full professor level. The study also revealed indications that aid directors in larger institutions were more likely to enjoy faculty rank than directors in smaller institutions.

Involvement in institutional policy was also related to institutional size. The level of involvement of directors in financial aid policy formulation appeared to be greater in smaller institutions than in larger institutions. In the smaller institutions, aid directors were most often chairmen of financial aid committees or participated in aid policy without the help of a committee. When involvement in policy other than financial aid was considered, aid directors in institutions below 1,000 students were much less likely to be involved. The following tables show how institutional size compares with the previously mentioned variables.



Table 46

Institutional Size by Organizational Structure

<u>Size of Institution</u>	<u>Aid Director's Reporting</u>					<u>Total</u>
	<u>To</u> <u>President</u>	<u>Once</u> <u>Removed</u>	<u>Twice</u> <u>Removed</u>	<u>Thrice</u> <u>Removed</u>	<u>Four or</u> <u>More</u>	
Under 1,000 students	11	26	1	1	1	40
1,000 to 2,499	3	22	8	0	0	33
2,500 to 4,999	1	15	4	0	0	20
5,000 to 9,999	0	8	8	1	2	19
10,000 to 14,999	0	10	5	1	0	16
15,000 to 24,999	0	8	5	0	0	13
25,000 and over	<u>0</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>8</u>
Total	15	93	35	3	3	149

N = 150

R = 149

The chi square value for the relationship was 47.473 with twenty-four degrees of freedom, ( $.01 > P > .001$ ).

Table 47

Institutional Size by Level of Salary

<u>Size of Institution</u>	<u>Aid Director's Level of Salary</u>				<u>Total</u>
	<u>Instructor</u>	<u>Assistant Professor</u>	<u>Associate Professor</u>	<u>Professor</u>	
Under 1,000 students	7	5	6	2	20
1,000 to 2,499	9	10	4	4	27
2,500 to 4,999	5	7	1	3	16
5,000 to 9,999	3	8	7	0	18
10,000 to 14,999	1	8	6	1	16
15,000 to 24,999	0	4	4	5	13
25,000 and over	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>7</u>
Total	25	42	34	16	117*

N = 150

R = 117

\*There was incomplete financial information about several directors, in most cases because their institutions did not report teaching salaries.

The chi square value for the relationship was 38.223 with eighteen degrees of freedom, ( $.01 > P > .001$ ).

Table 48

Institutional Size by Faculty Rank of Aid Director

<u>Size of Institution</u>	<u>Has Rank</u>	<u>No Rank</u>	<u>Does Not Know</u>	<u>Not Determined</u>	<u>Other Arrangement</u>	<u>Total</u>
Under 1,000 students	12	25	0	2	1	40
1,000 to 2,499	8	19	2	2	2	33
2,500 to 4,999	5	12	1	2	0	20
5,000 to 9,999	6	7	4	0	2	19
10,000 to 14,999	8	7	1	0	0	16
15,000 to 24,999	3	7	1	2	0	13
25,000 and over	<u>3</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>8</u>
Total	45	80	9	8	7	149

N = 150

R = 149

The chi square value for the relationship was 32.421 with twenty-four degrees of freedom, (.20 > P > .10).

Table 49

Institutional Size by Degree of InvolvementIn Financial Aid Policy

<u>Size of Institution</u>	<u>Degree of Involvement</u>					<u>Other</u>	<u>Total</u>
	<u>Chairman of F.A. Committee</u>	<u>Voting Member</u>	<u>Non- Voting Member</u>	<u>In-put to Committee</u>	<u>Partici- pates, No Committee</u>		
Under 1,000 students	19	10	2	1	8	0	40
1,000 to 2,499	10	10	3	1	8	2	34
2,500 to 4,999	7	5	5	0	3	0	20
5,000 to 9,999	6	5	2	1	2	3	19
10,000 to 14,999	1	7	6	1	1	0	16
15,000 to 24,999	5	6	0	1	1	0	13
25,000 and over	<u>0</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>8</u>
Total	48	48	19	5	25	5	150

N = 150

R = 150

The chi square value for the relationship was 47.175 with thirty degrees of freedom, ( $.05 > P > .02$ ).

Table 50

Institutional Size by Involvement

	<u>In Other Policy</u>		
	<u>Involvement in Other Policy</u>		
	<u>Involved</u>	<u>Not Involved</u>	
	<u>In Other</u>	<u>In</u>	
<u>Size of Institution</u>	<u>Policy</u>	<u>Other Policy</u>	<u>Total</u>
Under 1,000 students	13	27	40
1,000 to 2,499	23	11	34
2,500 to 4,999	17	3	20
5,000 to 9,999	11	8	19
10,000 to 14,999	8	8	16
15,000 to 24,999	9	4	13
25,000 and over	<u>6</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>8</u>
Total	87	63	150

N = 150

R = 150

The chi square value for the relationship was 20.004 with six degrees of freedom, ( $.01 > P > .001$ ).

Type of Institution:

The study dealt with only two types of institutions, baccalaureate degree granting and baccalaureate and graduate degree granting. Excluded were two-year institutions that did not grant the baccalaureate degree and purely graduate or professional institutions.

When the type of institution aid directors worked at was analyzed against the criteria variables, only two significant relationships were found: where the director reported in the organizational structure and his level of pay. Financial

aid directors from baccalaureate institutions were more usually higher in the organizational structure than directors from universities. Here the term "university" is taken strictly to mean an institution granting the baccalaureate and at least one graduate degree. Like size of institution, type of institution has a definite bearing on the amount of organizational structure the institution has. This would appear to be quite logical, since universities are usually much larger than baccalaureate institutions. In universities, therefore, the aid director typically is once or twice removed from the president. By contrast, aid directors at baccalaureate institutions usually report directly to the president or are once removed.

The level of salary of aid directors also was significantly related to institutional type. Directors at universities were paid at a higher level than their counterparts in baccalaureate institutions. The next two tables show the relationships between institutional type and organizational structure and level of salary.

Table 51

Institutional Type by Organizational Structure

<u>Reporting Structure</u>	<u>Type of Institution</u>		<u>Total</u>
	<u>Only Baccalaureate</u>	<u>Baccalaureate and Graduate</u>	
To the president	13	2	15
Once removed	47	46	93
Twice removed	8	27	35
Thrice removed	0	3	3
Four or more times removed	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>
Total	69	80	149

N = 150

R = 149

The chi square value for the relationship was 21.027 with four degrees of freedom, ( $.001 > P$ ).

Table 52

Institutional Type by Level of Salary

<u>Level of Salary</u>	<u>Type of Institution</u>		<u>Total</u>
	<u>Only Baccalaureate</u>	<u>Baccalaureate and Graduate</u>	
Instructor	17	8	25
Assistant professor	16	26	42
Associate professor	9	25	34
Professor	<u>6</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>16</u>
Total	48	69	117*

N = 150

R = 117

\*There was incomplete financial information about several directors, in most cases because their institutions did not report teaching salaries.

The chi square value for the relationship was 10.727 with three degrees of freedom, ( $.02 > P > .01$ ).

### Control of Institution:

Institutions studied were classified broadly as either private or public. Control was significantly related to several criteria variables. In private institutions (see Table 53), the aid director was closer to the president in the organizational structure. Table 54 shows that public institutions pay aid directors at higher levels than do private institutions. Public institutions also grant tenure to aid directors more frequently (see Table 55). Finally, Table 56 shows that aid directors in public institutions are more frequently involved in other institutional policy formulation, in addition to financial aid policy.

Table 53

#### Institutional Control by Organizational Structure

<u>Reporting Structure</u>	<u>Control</u>		<u>Total</u>
	<u>Private</u>	<u>Public</u>	
To the president	15	0	15
Once removed	58	35	93
Twice removed	11	24	35
Thrice removed	1	2	3
Four or more times removed	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>
Total	86	63	149

N = 150

R = 149

The chi square value for the relationship was 23.185 with four degrees of freedom, (.001 > P).



Table 54

Institutional Control by Level of Salary

<u>Reporting Structure</u>	<u>Control</u>		<u>Total</u>
	<u>Private</u>	<u>Public</u>	
Instructor	19	6	25
Assistant professor	17	25	42
Associate professor	14	20	34
Professor	<u>7</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>16</u>
Total	57	60	117*

N = 150

R = 117

\*There was incomplete financial information about several directors, in most cases because their institutions did not report teaching salaries.

The chi square value for the relationship was 9.522 with three degrees of freedom, ( $.05 > P > .02$ ).

Table 55

Institutional Control by Tenure

	<u>Control</u>		<u>Total</u>
	<u>Private</u>	<u>Public</u>	
Directors with tenure	6	15	21
Directors without tenure	66	37	103
Do not know	5	6	11
Not determined	8	4	12
Other arrangement	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>
Total	86	63	149

N = 150

R = 149

The chi square value for the relationship was 10.138 with four degrees of freedom, ( $.05 > P > .02$ ).

Table 56

Institutional Control by Involvement in Other Policy

	<u>Control</u>		<u>Total</u>
	<u>Private</u>	<u>Public</u>	
Directors involved in other policy	41	46	87
Directors not involved in other policy	<u>45</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>63</u>
Total	86	64	150

N - 150 R = 150

The chi square value for the relationship was 7.856 with one degree of freedom, ( $.01 > P > .001$ ).

The Director's Title and Supervisor's Title:

The directors questioned were asked to list their exact title and the title of their immediate supervisor. The 150 directors reported a total of forty-four different titles for the person responsible for the institution's financial aid program. Fifty-eight per cent, or eighty-seven directors, reported holding either the title Director of Financial Aid or Aids or Director of Student Financial Aid. Many of the other titles reflected the dual responsibilities of aid director and Dean of Students, Admissions Director, Director of Placement, Business Manager, and the like.

Even more diverse were the titles of the immediate

supervisors of the aid directors. A total of sixty-one different titles were reported. Table 57 shows the most frequently reported titles.

Table 57

Supervisors of Aid Directors

<u>Title:</u>	<u>Number of Aid Directors</u>
Dean of Students	20
Vice President for Student Affairs	18
President	14
Business Manager	7
Director of Admissions	5
Dean of Student Affairs	4
Academic Dean	3

Sex of Director:

The study revealed a distinct minority of women in the position of financial aid director. When the sex of the director was analyzed against the criteria variables individually, two significant relationships were found: level of pay and tenure.<sup>7</sup> The study revealed that women's salaries were more usually at the lowest level, while men's salaries were more evenly balanced through the four levels. Table 58 shows the breakdown.

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<sup>7</sup>Tenure in this context, as in the entire study, is taken to mean tenure as financial aid director (Supra, p. In other words, this would be a guarantee of employment, not tenure in an academic department or tenure for a limited number of years as is sometimes called a "professional growth contract."

Tenure also was significantly related to the sex of the director. Men more frequently reported holding tenure as aid directors in their institutions. No women reported tenure. Table 59 shows the relationship of the two variables.

Table 58

Sex of Director by Salary Level

<u>Level of Salary</u>	<u>Sex of Director</u>		<u>Total</u>
	<u>Males</u>	<u>Females</u>	
Instructor	16	9	25
Assistant professor	40	2	42
Associate professor	31	3	34
Professor	<u>16</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>16</u>
Total	103	14	117*

N = 150      R = 117

\*There was incomplete financial information about several directors, in most cases because their institutions did not report teaching salaries.

The chi square value for the relationship was 18.272 with three degrees of freedom, ( $.001 > P$ ).

Table 59

Sex of Director by Tenure

	<u>Males</u>	<u>Females</u>	<u>Total</u>
Directors with tenure	21	0	21
Directors without tenure	90	13	103
Do not know	8	3	11
Not determined	8	4	12
Other arrangement	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>
Total	128	21	149

N = 150

R = 149

The chi square value for the relationship was 11.006 with four degrees of freedom, ( $.05 > P > .02$ ).

Time in Higher Education:

The extent of time a financial aid director has worked in higher education was discovered to be significantly related to one of the criteria variables, level of salary. There was definite evidence that veteran directors were paid at a higher salary level than newcomers to higher education. Table 60 shows this breakdown.

Table 60

Time in Higher Education by Salary Level

<u>Time in Higher Education</u>	<u>Level of Salary</u>				<u>Total</u>
	<u>Instructor</u>	<u>Assistant Professor</u>	<u>Associate Professor</u>	<u>Professor</u>	
In first year	0	2	0	0	2
One to three years	4	2	0	0	6
Three to five years	4	11	4	0	19
Five to ten years	12	15	17	3	47
Ten years or longer	<u>5</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>43</u>
Total	25	42	34	16	117*

N = 150      R = 117

\*There was incomplete financial information about several directors, in most cases because their institutions did not report teaching salaries.

The chi square value for the relationship was 32.037 with twelve degrees of freedom, ( $.01 > P > .001$ ).

### Educational Background of the Director:

Educational background of aid directors was found to be significantly related to the level of pay directors received. The higher the degree the director possessed, the higher was his level of salary. The relationship is shown in Table 61.

Table 61

#### Educational Background by Salary Level

<u>Education of Director</u>	<u>Level of Salary</u>				<u>Total</u>
	<u>Inst.</u>	<u>Asst. Prof.</u>	<u>Assoc. Prof.</u>	<u>Prof.</u>	
Doctoral degree	0	2	0	7	9
In doctoral program	1	2	8	1	12
Masters degree	11	18	20	6	55
In masters program	0	10	1	1	12
Baccalaureate degree	7	7	4	1	19
No baccalaureate degree	<u>6</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>10</u>
Total	25	42	34	16	117*

N = 150

R = 117

\*There was incomplete financial information about several directors, in most cases because their institutions did not report teaching salaries.

The chi square value for the relationship was 67.197 with fifteen degrees of freedom, ( $.001 > P$ ).

The information on the educational background of the aid directors sampled revealed that approximately sixteen per cent either had doctorates or were in doctoral programs. Almost fifty-two per cent already had masters degrees or were in

a masters program. Eighteen per cent had only a baccalaureate degree, while twelve per cent had no degree. Education was by far the more common field of directors with doctorates or in doctoral programs. In the master's area, counseling and guidance, as well as education, dominated. Table 62 shows the number of directors sampled and their degrees. Table 63 gives the field of study pursued by these directors.

Table 62

Education of Directors

<u>Degree</u>	<u>Number of Directors</u>
Doctorate	11
In doctoral program	14
Masters	63
In masters program	16
Baccalaureate	28
No degree	<u>18</u>
Total	150

N = 150

R = 150



Table 63

Field of Study of Directors

<u>Masters</u>		<u>Doctorate</u>	
<u>Subject</u>	<u>Number of Directors</u>	<u>Subject</u>	<u>Number of Directors</u>
Guidance & Counseling	22	Education	16
Education	20	Student Personnel	2
Student Personnel	8	All others	<u>7</u>
Business Administration	7	Total	25
History	4		
Economics	3		
All other fields	11		
No answer	<u>4</u>		
Total	79		
N = 79	R = 73	N = 25	R = 25

Publication of Articles on Financial Aid:

Scholarly publications in the field of financial aid were not often reported by the directors surveyed. Only two per cent of the directors reported any publication of books on financial aid. The publication of journal articles, however, was a little more common. Twenty-three directors, or approximately fifteen per cent, reported at least some publication of articles on financial aid topics. Analyzing this item with the criteria variables revealed that directors who published articles were more likely to be paid at higher levels than directors who had not published. This is shown in Table 64.

Table 64

Publication of Articles by Salary Level

<u>Salary Level</u>	<u>Degree of Publication</u>				<u>Total</u>
	<u>Frequent</u>	<u>Occasional</u>	<u>One Occasion</u>	<u>Never</u>	
Instructor	0	0	1	24	25
Assistant Professor	0	2	4	36	42
Associate Professor	1	5	0	28	34
Professor	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>16</u>
Total	2	10	8	97	117*

N = 150

R = 117

\*There was incomplete financial information about several directors, in most cases because their institutions did not report teaching salaries.

The chi square value for the relationship was 17.988 with nine degrees of freedom, ( $.05 > P > .02$ ).

Participation as Leaders in Financial Aid Workshops:

One of the indications of leadership in the financial aid profession is the degree a director is involved in teaching financial aid work to other directors. Over fifty-eight per cent of the directors sampled reported this kind of involvement in the profession at least on one occasion. Table 65 shows their responses to this question.

When this variable was analyzed against the criteria variables, a definite relationship was discovered between this kind of leadership and salary level. Directors who reported this involvement were paid at a higher level than those who had never assumed this teaching role. Table 66 shows this relationship.

Table 65

Participation as Teachers in  
Financial Aid Workshops

<u>Degree of Participation</u>	<u>Number of Directors</u>
Frequently	25
Occasionally	46
On one occasion	17
Never	<u>62</u>
Total	150

N = 150

R = 150

Table 66

Participation in Financial Aid Workshops by Salary Level

<u>Level of Salary</u>	<u>Degree of Participation</u>				<u>Total</u>
	<u>Frequent</u>	<u>Occasional</u>	<u>One Occasion</u>	<u>Never</u>	
Instructor	1	4	3	17	25
Assistant Professor	2	15	7	18	42
Associate Professor	11	16	2	5	34
Professor	<u>8</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>16</u>
Total	22	40	12	43	117*

N = 150

R = 117

\*There was incomplete financial information about several directors, in most cases because their institutions did not report teaching salaries.

The chi square value for the relationship was 40.061 with nine degrees of freedom, ( $.001 > P$ ).

Office Holding in Professional, Educational Organizations:

The aid director who holds office in a financial aid organization is usually a recognized leader in his profession. The aid directors sampled were asked to indicate to what extent they presently or in the past held office in financial aid organizations or other educational organizations. Several directors were found to be or to have been office holders. Their responses are shown in Table 67.

When office holding was analyzed against the criteria variables, again a significant relationship was shown with salary level. Office holders tended to be paid at a higher level than those who had never held office. This relationship is shown in Table 68.

Table 67

Present or Past Office Holders

<u>Type of Organization</u>	<u>Number of Directors</u>
State financial aid organization	65
Regional financial aid organization	15
National financial aid organization	7
Other educational organization	17
No office held	74
No answer	<u>5</u>
Total	183*

N = 150

R = 145

\*Some directors held office in more than one organization.

Table 68

Office Holding by Salary Level

<u>Office Held</u>	<u>Instructor</u>	<u>Assistant Professor</u>	<u>Associate Professor</u>	<u>Professor</u>	<u>Total</u>
State financial aid organ.	9	16	13	6	44
Regional financial aid organ.	0	0	4	4	8
National financial aid organ.	0	1	4	2	7
Other educational organ.	1	2	0	1	4
No office held	<u>15</u>	<u>21</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>52</u>
Total	25	40	34	16	115*

N = 150

R = 115

\*There was incomplete financial information about several directors, in most cases because their institutions did not report teaching salaries.

The chi square value for the relationship was 24.801 with twelve degrees of freedom, ( $.02 > P > .01$ ).

Opinion about Authority:

The financial aid directors were asked whether they agreed or disagreed that they had enough authority to effectively do their jobs as financial aid directors. Their opinions on this were analyzed against the criteria variables. Only in one case, did the analysis show a significant relationship: place in the administrative structure. Directors who were closer to the president or higher in the organizational structure of their institution were more likely to agree that they had enough authority to do their jobs effectively. Table 69 shows this.



Table 69

Opinion about Authority by Place in the Organizational Structure

<u>Organizational Structure</u>	<u>Opinion about Authority</u>				<u>Total</u>
	<u>Strong Agreement</u>	<u>Moderate Agreement</u>	<u>Moderate Disagreement</u>	<u>Strong Disagreement</u>	
Reports to president	12	3	0	0	15
Once removed	54	32	4	1	91
Twice removed	21	11	2	1	35
Thrice removed	0	3	0	0	3
Four or more times removed	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>
Total	88	50	6	3	147

N = 150

R = 147

The chi square value for the relationship was 24.359 with twelve degrees of freedom, ( $.02 > P > .01$ ).

Opinion about Role in Financial Aid Policy Formulation:

Directors were asked the degree of agreement or disagreement with the extent of their involvement in financial aid policy formulation in their own institutions. It is interesting to note that the study revealed that 100 per cent of the directors reported that they are involved in the making of financial aid policy for their institutions. Therefore, it was not surprising that most directors evidenced strong satisfaction with the degree of involvement in such policy. Nevertheless, there was an indication that directors higher up in the organizational structure were more likely to strongly agree with the statement about their role in financial aid policy. Table 70 shows their opinions according to their place in their institutions.

Significant also was that those who voiced the strongest agreement on this topic were more likely to be involved in the formulation of other policy in their institutions. This is shown in Table 71.

Table 70

Opinion about Role in Financial Aid Policy  
by Place in Organizational Structure

<u>Organizational Structure</u>	<u>Opinion about Role in F.A. Policy</u>				<u>Total</u>
	<u>Strong Agreement</u>	<u>Moderate Agreement</u>	<u>Moderate Disagreement</u>	<u>Strong Disagreement</u>	
Reports to president	11	3	1	0	15
Once removed	54	31	5	1	91
Twice removed	20	11	3	1	35
Thrice removed	0	2	1	0	3
Four or more times removed	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>
Total	86	48	10	3	147

N = 150

R = 147

The chi square value for the relationship was 23.507 with twelve degrees of freedom, ( $.05 > P > .02$ ).

Table 71

Opinion about Role in Financial Aid Policyby Involvement in Other Policy

<u>Opinion about Role in F.A. Policy</u>	<u>Involvement in Other Policy</u>		<u>Total</u>
	<u>Involved</u>	<u>Not involved</u>	
Strong agreement	59	27	86
Moderate agreement	23	26	49
Moderate disagreement	3	7	10
Strong disagreement	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>
Total	86	62	148

N = 150

R = 148

The chi square value for the relationship was 10.406 with three degrees of freedom, ( $.02 > P > .01$ ).

Opinion about Role in Other Policy:

Directors were also asked to voice their agreement or disagreement with a statement about their role in the formulation of policy in other institutional matters besides financial aid. As in the previous opinion question, when analyzed against the criteria variables, significant relationships were found with their place in the organizational structure and their role in other policy. Those higher up in the administration of their institutions voiced the strongest agreement with the statement. Moreover, those who were actually involved with other policy, were more likely to be satisfied with that involvement. Tables 72 and 73 show these relationships.

Table 72

Opinion about Role in Other Policy by Place in Organizational Structure

<u>Organizational Structure</u>	<u>Strong Agreement</u>	<u>Moderate Agreement</u>	<u>Moderately Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>	<u>No Opinion</u>	<u>Total</u>
Reports to president	8	5	0	1	0	14
Once removed	26	30	19	8	8	91
Twice removed	2	17	9	6	1	35
Thrice removed	0	1	1	1	0	3
Four or more times removed	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>
Total	36	53	29	18	10	146

N = 150

R = 146

The chi square value for the relationship was 35.957 with sixteen degrees of freedom, ( $.01 > P > .001$ ).

Table 73

Opinion about Role in Other Policy by Role in Other Policy

<u>Opinion about Role</u>	<u>Involvement in Other Policy</u>		<u>Total</u>
	<u>Involved in Other Policy</u>	<u>Not Involved</u>	
Strong agreement	30	6	36
Moderate agreement	36	17	53
Moderate disagreement	15	15	30
Strong disagreement	2	16	18
No opinion	<u>3</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>10</u>
Total	86	61	147

N = 150

R = 147

The chi square value for the relationship was 31.973 with four degrees of freedom, ( $.001 > P$ ).

Opinion about Recognition by Others:

Directors were asked to voice opinions on the statement: I am recognized by others in my institution as holding an important administrative position. Their opinions on this statement were also analyzed against the individual criteria variables. Again, it was not surprising that place in the administrative structure and role in other policy proved to be the two significantly related variables. Two of the key ways an administrator is recognized as holding an important position are: how close he is to the president and how much is he involved in institutional policy. Table 74 shows that those highest in the organizational structure more often strongly agreed with the statement. In Table 75, it is shown that disagreement came more often from those not involved in other policy.

Table 74

Opinion about Recognition by Place in Organizational Structure

<u>Organizational Structure</u>	<u>Strong Agreement</u>	<u>Moderate Agreement</u>	<u>Moderately Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>	<u>No Opinion</u>	<u>Total</u>
Reports to president	9	4	1	0	0	14
Once removed	26	47	12	4	2	91
Twice removed	9	16	4	6	0	35
Thrice removed	0	2	1	0	0	3
Four or more times removed	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>
Total	44	69	18	12	3	146

N = 150

R = 146

The chi square value for the relationship was 46.670 with sixteen degrees of freedom, ( $.001 > P$ ).

Table 75

Opinion about Recognition by Involvement in Other Policy

<u>Opinion about Recognition</u>	<u>Involvement in Other Policy</u>		<u>Total</u>
	<u>Involved in Other Policy</u>	<u>Not Involved</u>	
Strong agreement	29	15	44
Moderate agreement	44	25	69
Moderate disagreement	7	12	19
Strong disagreement	3	9	12
No opinion	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>
Total	85	62	147

N = 150      R = 147

The chi square value for the relationship was 11.006 with four degrees of freedom,  $(.05 > P > .02)$ .

Opinion about Place in the Administrative Structure:

Directors were also asked to voice their opinions on their place in the administrative structure of their institutions. Were they satisfied that it was adequate? Not surprisingly, those who were higher up in the administrative ladder tended to agree more strongly with the statement. Table 76 shows the relationship between their degree of agreement or disagreement with their place in the administrative structure.

A significant relationship was also shown between this item and the involvement of aid directors in other policy. Aid directors who were involved in policy other than financial aid policy were more likely to strongly agree with this statement. Table 77 shows this tendency.



Table 76

Opinion about Place in the Organizational Structureby Place in the Organizational Structure

<u>Organizational Structure</u>	<u>Strong Agreement</u>	<u>Moderate Agreement</u>	<u>Moderately Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>	<u>No Opinion</u>	<u>Total</u>
Reports to president	11	2	2	0	0	15
Once removed	37	37	11	5	1	91
Twice removed	8	13	8	6	0	35
Thrice removed	0	1	2	0	0	3
Four or more times removed	<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>3</u>
Total	56	54	23	13	1	147

N = 150

R = 147

The chi square value for the relationship was 36.944 with sixteen degrees of freedom, ( $.01 > P > .001$ ).

Table 77

Opinion about Place in the Organizational  
Structure by Involvement in Other Policy

<u>Opinion about Place</u>	<u>Involvement in Other Policy</u>	<u>Not Involved</u>	<u>Total</u>
Strong agreement	39	17	56
Moderate agreement	32	22	54
Moderate disagreement	12	12	24
Strong disagreement	3	10	13
No opinion	<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>
Total	86	62	148

N = 150

R = 148

The chi square value for the relationship was 11.679 with four degrees of freedom, ( $.02 > P > .01$ ).

Opinion about Salary:

The directors were asked whether their salary was adequate in comparison to other salaries at their own institutions. When their answers were compared with the individual criteria variables, only one variable proved to be significantly related. Not surprisingly, those who were paid at the higher levels voiced stronger agreement on this opinion. Their opinions are presented in Table 78.

Table 78

Opinion about Salary by Level of Salary

<u>Opinion about Salary</u>	<u>Instructor</u>	<u>Assistant Professor</u>	<u>Associate Professor</u>	<u>Professor</u>	<u>Total</u>
Strong agreement	0	5	9	9	23
Moderate agreement	8	15	15	6	44
Moderate disagreement	8	13	6	0	27
Strong disagreement	7	6	2	0	15
No opinion	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>6</u>
Total	24	41	34	16	115*

N = 150

R = 115

\*There was incomplete financial information about several directors, in most cases because their institutions did not report teaching salaries.

The chi square value for the relationship was 32.595 with twelve degrees of freedom, ( $.01 > P > .001$ ).

Analysis of the individual criteria variables showed numerous significant relationships. A director's place in the organizational structure of his institution was significantly related to the size, type, and method of control of his institution. It was also related significantly to the director's opinions about the adequacy of his authority, his role in financial aid policy formulation, his role in other institutional policy, his opinion about his recognition by others in his own institution, and his opinion about his place in the organizational structure of his institution.

The level of the aid director's salary was found to be significantly related to the size, type, and control of the director's institution. It was also associated significantly with the sex of the aid director, the amount of time he has spent working in higher education, his educational background, the extent of his publication of articles on financial aid, his participation as a leader in financial aid workshops, his holding of office in professional, educational organizations, and his opinion about the adequacy of his salary.

The holding of faculty rank by a director of financial aid was not found to be significantly related to any other

variable used in the analysis. Tenure, however, as director of financial aid was significantly related to the method of control of the director's institution and the sex of the director.

The degree of involvement of the director in financial aid policy was related significantly only to the size of the director's institution. Whether or not the director was involved in the formulation of other institutional policy was significantly related to the size and control of the director's institution. Involvement in other policy was also significantly related to several opinions of the director: 1) his opinion about his role in financial aid policy; 2) his opinion about his role in other policy; 3) his opinion about his recognition by others in his institution; and 4) his opinion about his place in the administrative structure of his institution. Finally, the degree of involvement of the aid director in other institutional policy was not significantly related to any other variable used in the analysis.

### CONCLUSION

The results of the study have shown that the general null hypothesis can be rejected. Some significant differences

have been found among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions. The significant differences were in the method of control of the aid director's institution, the sex of the director, the percentage of time he spent on financial aid, his educational background, his participation as a leader in financial aid workshops, and his opinion about his role in institutional policy other than financial aid policy. In addition, the study revealed several significant relationships when the criteria variables were analyzed individually against the other variables in the study. Chapter five will discuss a summary of the results, the conclusions of the study, the relationship of the results to other studies, and recommendations for future studies.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Statement of the Problem:

Since the financial aid profession in higher education has experienced rapid growth and development in recent years, there is need for more research in this field. With the expansion of federal financial aid programs, the aid director's importance in the area of student services has increased greatly. This study attempted to learn specific information about the role of the financial aid director in his own institution.

#### Sample:

The study was based on a stratified random sample of 170 financial aid directors at four-year colleges and universities in the eleven states that make up the Midwest Association of Student Financial Aid Administrators. Stratification of the sample was based on size, type, and method of control of the institution.

### Methodology and Statistical Method:

An index of importance was developed using six criteria: 1) the director's place in the administrative structure of his institution; 2) his salary in relation to faculty salaries in his institution; 3) whether or not he holds faculty rank; 4) whether or not he is tenured as financial aid director; 5) his involvement in financial aid policy formulation at his institution; and 6) his involvement in the formulation of other policy at his institution. The criteria were a consensus of the opinions of seven of ten financial aid experts questioned. The criteria also were supported by numerous financial aid directors questioned by the author. Based on these six criteria, aid directors were ranked into high, medium, and low groups.

Ranking was achieved by taking each of the six criteria as equal in value. Within each criterion a four point scale was used, the highest being four points and lowest one. Thus, it was possible for a director to achieve a maximum score of twenty-four and a minimum score of six. The high group was identified as the top third, the medium the middle third, and the low group the lowest third. Some slight overlapping occurred because the scores of the 109 directors did not fall



into exact thirds. Table 79 shows how they were grouped.

Table 79

Ranking of Directors

	<u>Number of Directors</u>	<u>Percentage of Total</u>
High group	37	33.9
Medium group	38	34.9
Low group	<u>34</u>	<u>31.2</u>
Total	109	100.0

These three groups constituted the independent variables. The dependent variables were several variables grouped under four headings: 1) those relating to the director's institution; 2) those relating to the director himself; 3) certain opinions of the director; and 4) the aid director's career decision. The statistical method employed in the analysis was chi square in a contingency table.

General Null Hypothesis:

1) One set of general null hypotheses was that there were no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions and several variables pertaining to the directors' institutions.

2) Another set of general null hypotheses was that there were no significant differences among directors of financial

aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions and variables pertaining to the aid director himself, his opinions about his position in his institution, and his decision to remain in the financial aid field.

### SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

This final chapter will summarize the results of the study and discuss its conclusions and their relationship with other studies. The chapter will also suggest avenues for further investigation.

The analysis showed that several variables were not significantly related to the ranking of directors. There were no significant relationships between the ranking of directors and the size of the director's institution, its type, and the percentage of the institutional budget allocated to financial aid.

In the analysis of the aid director's rank with several variables related to the director himself, many variables were found not to be significantly related. The director's age, the amount of time he has spent in his present position, the time he has worked in financial aid, his length of service in higher education, the extent of his training in

financial aid both prior to entering the field and subsequent, whether or not he has published a book or books on financial aid, whether or not he is a member of any professional, educational organizations, and, finally, whether or not he presently holds office or has held office in any professional, educational organizations--all these variables were not significantly related to the ranking of directors in importance in their own institutions.

Specific null hypotheses also tested the aid director's opinions on several statements relating to his position in his institution and how these opinions related to the ranking of aid directors. No significant relationships were found between the rank of an aid director and his opinions on: 1) his role in financial aid policy; 2) his recognition by others in his institution; 3) his satisfaction with his place in the administrative structure of his institution; 4) his satisfaction with his salary; 5) financial aid work as a preparation for other types of college administration; and 6) his satisfaction with financial aid work as a life time career.

Finally, aid directors were asked about their own career decisions. No significant relationship was found

between the ranking of an aid director and his decision to choose financial aid work as a career.

The general null hypothesis of the study was rejected, however. Rejection was based on the rejection of several specific null hypotheses. One specific null hypothesis rejected pertained to the director's institution. Four specific hypotheses rejected pertained to the director himself and three pertained to the director's opinions about his role in his own institution. A review of these hypotheses and the specific findings follow.

Specific null hypotheses:

1. Pertaining to the Director's Institution:

- c) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the method of control of their institutions.

The study showed that directors ranked high in importance more usually were found in public institutions. The low group more frequently came from private institutions.

2. Pertaining to the Director Himself:

- b) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the sex of the directors.

Results indicated that an overwhelming majority of directors in the high group were males. Most women directors studied fell into the low group.

- c) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the percentage of the directors' working weeks devoted to financial aid.

Directors who spent only part of their time on financial aid more often were in the high group. Part-time directors in this study were defined as those who spent less than 70 per cent of their working weeks on financial aid matters.

- h) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering their educational backgrounds.

Directors with doctorates or in doctoral programs much more frequently were in the high group. Conversely, directors with only the baccalaureate degree or no degree at all were usually in the low group.

- 1) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the number of articles they have published on financial aid.

Although most of the directors of financial aid studied did not publish articles on financial aid in professional journals, those who did publish were more likely to be in the high group. Low group directors did little or no publishing.

- m) There are no significant differences among directors of financial aid ranked high, medium, and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the extent to which they have participated, in a leadership or teaching capacity, in financial aid seminars or workshops on a state, regional, national basis, or in connection with an institution of higher education.

Directors who exercised leadership roles in their profession by their participation in seminars and workshops more frequently were high group directors. The low group evidences little of this kind of professionalism.

3. Opinion variables: There are no significant differences among those directors of financial aid ranked high, medium,

and low in importance in their own institutions, when considering the degree of their agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

- a) I have enough authority to do the job of financial aid director effectively.

Aid directors in the high group generally agreed strongly with that statement. As their ranking went down, so did the likelihood of their strong agreement.

- c) My superiors have a clear picture of the kind of job I am doing in financial aid administration.

Similarly, directors in the high and medium groups were more likely to agree with that statement. Low group directors more frequently disagreed with the statement.

- d) I have a large enough role in policy formulation in other matters in my institution.

In the formulation of institutional policy, other than financial aid policy, directors in the high group showed much more satisfaction with their roles. The low group evidenced considerably more disagreement on this opinion question than the high group.

From the analysis of the 109 aid directors studied, therefore, emerged three distinct profiles. The profile of

of the aid director in the high group showed that he was, first of all, from a public institution. Sixty-five per cent of the high group were from publicly controlled institutions. High group directors were also overwhelmingly males, 97.3 per cent of them. Their educational background was also distinct, with 37.8 per cent either holding doctorates or in doctoral programs. Another 45.9 per cent held masters degrees. Totally, therefore, 83.7 per cent of the high group held a masters degree or better.

In their leadership abilities, as measured by how often they participated, as leaders or teachers, in financial aid workshops, seminars and the like, again the high group excelled. At least occasional involvement was reported by 72.9 per cent.

Although the study showed that most aid directors published no articles on financial aid, it was significant, by comparison with the other two groups, that 29.7 per cent of the high group reported publishing at least one article on financial aid.

The high group was also unique in their responses to three opinion questions about their places in their institutions. When asked how they felt about their role in the



formulation of institutional policy in areas other than financial aid, 75.6 per cent of the high group either moderately or strongly agreed that they were satisfied with that role.

Similarly, 78.4 per cent of the high group strongly agreed that they had enough authority to do an effective job as aid directors in their institutions. Eighty-one per cent of the high group agreed, at least moderately, that their superiors had a clear picture of the kind of job they were doing in financial aid administration.

By comparison with the high group, the profile of the medium group was less pronounced. Slightly over half of this group, or 52.6 per cent, came also from public institutions, rather than private. Again, males dominated this group, although the percentage was not as great as in the high group. Men formed 86.8 per cent of the medium group. In the educational backgrounds of the medium group, 60.5 per cent of them held masters degrees. Only 7.9 per cent of this group held the doctorate or were in doctoral programs.

In leadership roles in financial aid workshops or seminars, the medium group was evenly divided between those who participated occasionally or frequently, on the one hand,

and those who participated only once or never, on the other. Still, a sizeable percentage of this group, 42.1 per cent, reported having never shown this kind of participation in their profession.

Only three directors in the medium group, 7.9 per cent, reported that they occasionally published articles on financial aid. All the others, or 92.1 per cent, in the group claimed no publications.

In the opinion questions about their roles in their institutions, the medium group evidenced a little less satisfaction than the high group. On the whole, however, they showed more satisfaction than dissatisfaction. On the question about their roles in the formulation of policy other than financial aid policy, 68.4 per cent of the group either strongly or moderately agreed that they were satisfied with their roles.

While 78.4 per cent of the high group agreed that they had enough authority to do an effective job as aid director, the percentage was smaller in the medium group. In that group, 60.5 per cent strongly agreed with the statement. Again, on their opinion about their superiors' knowledge of

how they performed their tasks as aid directors, most of the medium group showed at least moderate satisfaction. Forty nine per cent of them, however, voiced only moderate agreement in this opinion question.

The profile of the directors of financial aid in the low group showed a marked contrast to that of the high group. First of all, 67.6 per cent of them came from private institutions. Again, there were more males than females in the low group. This, however, must be seen in the perspective of the total number of females in the 109 directors ranked. Of that 109 only 12.8 per cent, or fourteen directors, were women. When the grouping of these fourteen women was looked at, 57.1 per cent of them fell in the low group. Another 35.7 per cent were in the medium group and the high group had 7.1 per cent women.

In educational background, the low group had no directors with doctorates, only one in a doctoral program, and 38.2 per cent with masters degrees. More significant, however, was that 41.2 per cent of this low group had either a baccalaureate degree or no degree at all.

Over half of the low group, or 52.9 per cent, reported

that they had never participated, as leaders or teachers, in financial aid workshops or seminars. In the publication of articles on financial aid, the low group was quite similar to the medium group. Only three directors reported any publications and 91.2 per cent never published.

In the opinion questions, the low group again showed some marked contrasts with the other two groups. They evidenced much less satisfaction with their roles in the formulation of other institutional policy than financial aid policy. Sixty-two per cent of them disagreed or voiced no opinion on whether they had a large enough influence in these other areas.

When asked about their satisfaction with the amount of authority they had as aid directors, exactly half of the low group indicated moderate satisfaction. This was in contrast to the strong satisfaction voiced by the other two groups. Finally, 53.2 per cent of the low group moderately or strongly disagreed with the statement that their superiors had a clear picture of the kind of job they were doing in financial aid administration.

Another point of some importance must be stressed about the typical financial aid director in the high group.

The study showed that there was a significant relationship between rank and the percentage of time an aid director spends on financial aid matters during his working week. For the purposes of this study, part-time aid directors were defined as those who spent less than 70 per cent of their time on financial aid. To say, however, that the typical aid director in the high group is a part-time aid director would be misleading. Only 12.8 per cent of the aid directors sampled were part-timers. These part-timers were typically from the smallest institutions and held other titles like that of Dean of Students. The fact that they also either reported directly to their presidents or were once removed from him might further explain why they tended to be in the high group.

Some analysis was done on the individual variables forming the criteria used to determine the ranking of aid directors. Six variables were used as criteria: 1) the director's place in the administrative structure of his institution; 2) his salary in relation to teaching salaries at his institution; 3) whether or not he holds faculty rank; 4) whether or not he is tenured as financial aid director; 5) his involvement in financial aid policy in his institution; and 6) his involvement in other institutional policy.

When place in the organizational structure was analyzed against the variables pertaining to the institution of the director, several things were found. Significant relationships were found between the organizational structure and the size, type, and method of control of the institution. The smaller the institution, the closer to the president was the financial aid director. Obviously, smaller institutions do not have the bureaucracy of the larger institutions. Similarly, the results showed that aid directors were higher up in the organizational structure of purely baccalaureate institutions than that of baccalaureate and graduate institutions. Again, this is not surprising, because of the nature of large universities with their multiplicity of programs. Finally, aid directors in private institutions were significantly closer to the president than the aid directors of public institutions. This is very likely because there are many more private institutions than public in the smallest category that have less than 1,000 students in attendance. Hence, because of their size, these institutions have smaller organizational structures and the aid director is often closer to the president.

No variables relating to the director himself were found to be significantly related to his place in the administrative structure. In the analysis of the opinion variables,

however, several were significantly related. Not surprisingly, the higher the director was in the organizational structure, the more strongly he agreed that: 1) he had enough authority to do the job of financial aid director effectively; 2) he had a large enough role in policy formulation in other matters in his institution; 3) he was recognized by others in his institution as holding an important administrative position; and 4) his place in the administrative structure of his institution was adequate. The results did not show, however, that place in the organization structure was significantly related to the director's satisfaction with his salary and his assurance that his superiors had a clear picture of the kind of job that he was doing in financial aid administration.

The second criterion variable analyzed was the aid director's salary. Salaries were not taken absolutely, but in comparison with the salaries of the instructional staff of the director's institution. Hence, an aid director was considered to be paid at the instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, or professor level. Some difficulty occurred in obtaining this salary information as was frequently noted in Chapter four. This was because several institutions do not publish their teaching salaries. This should be kept in mind when interpreting the relationship between level of

salary and other variables.

Level of salary, nevertheless, was found to be significantly related to the size, type, and control of the director's institution. In general, the results showed that the larger the institution, the higher the level of the director's pay.

Similarly, the level of salary was higher in baccalaureate institutions. Finally, public institutions paid the aid directors at higher levels than private institutions.

Several variables relating to the director were also shown to be significantly related to salary level. The sex of the director, the amount of time he has been employed in higher education, the extent of his educational background, his participation in the financial aid profession by publishing articles and participating as a leader in workshops, and office-holding--all these variables were significantly related to salary level.

Although women were outnumbered approximately six to one in the sample selected, the level of salary was significantly below that of the male aid director. Male directors were paid generally at the assistant or associate professor



level, but there were equal numbers at the instructor and full professor level. Women were most frequently paid at the lowest level and never at the highest. This finding and the previously mentioned one that the director's sex was significantly related to the overall ranking of directors might lead one to suspect that women are not receiving equal rights in the financial aid profession. At least, this seems to be true in the four-year colleges and universities of the Midwest.

Finally, level of salary was significantly related to only one of the opinion statements. The higher the salary level, the more strongly directors agreed that their salaries were adequate in comparison with other salaries in their institutions.

The possession of faculty rank by aid directors was not significantly related to any variable tested. This included all variables relating to the director himself, his institution, his opinions, and his career decision.

The holding of tenure as financial aid director was significantly related to both the method of control of the director's institution and the director's sex. In publicly controlled institutions, aid directors were more likely to

have tenure than in private institutions. Although the findings showed that tenure was not the usual situation for aid directors, still the chances of gaining tenure were greater in public institutions. In the sample tested, no women reported that they were tenured as aid directors. Sex definitely made a difference when tenure was considered. Again, it seemed that women financial aid directors in the colleges and universities of the Midwest that were sampled were not receiving the same benefits as men.

One of the more interesting findings of the study was that 100 per cent of the respondents indicated that they were involved in the formulation of financial aid policy in their own institutions. In this respect, clearly, the financial aid profession has come of age. Aid directors are not merely clerks performing a clerical function. They apparently have a say in how policy is made in their area of expertise.

The degree of involvement, however, differed in different cases. This was used as the criterion variable in the analysis. Degree of involvement in financial aid policy formulation was significantly related to only one other variable, size of the director's institution. In the smallest institutions, aid directors typically were either chairmen

of the major committee recommending financial aid policy or participated in the policy formulation in the absence of a committee. The more usual situation was for the institution to have a financial aid committee with the aid director as chairman. The larger the institution, the less likely the director served as chairman. He was more usually a voting member of the committee.

The last criterion variable analyzed was the aid director's involvement in other institutional policy besides financial aid policy. While aid directors responding were all involved in financial aid policy, it was certainly not true that all had in-put into other institutional policy. The majority of directors did, but over 40 per cent did not. When this involvement was analyzed, it was significantly related to none of the variables relating to the director, to two variables relating to the institution, and to four opinion variables.

In the matter of financial aid policy, the smallest institutions typically had a committee to recommend policy and the director served as the chairman. His in-put presumably is of considerable importance. The study showed, however, that in these same institutions the director was not

typically involved in other institutional policy. This is in contrast to the institutions slightly larger (1,000 to 2,499 students and 2,500 to 4,999 students) where aid directors have this kind of in-put.

The study also revealed that the control of the institution was significantly related to the involvement of the director in other policy. In public institutions, over 70 per cent of the respondents were so involved. The reverse was true in private institutions. Most aid directors sampled were not involved in other policy in their institutions.

In a sampling of their opinions, aid directors involved in other institutional policy more strongly agreed that: 1) they had a large enough role in financial aid policy in their institutions; 2) they had a large enough role in policy formulation in other matters in their institutions; 3) they were recognized by others in their institutions as holding an important administrative position; and 4) that their place in the administrative structure of their institutions was adequate. It seems that involvement in other policy can be an indicator of the general satisfaction of the aid director about his position in his institution.

Finally, the results of the study indicated that the

degree of involvement in other policy was not significantly related to any other variable. Similarly, and interestingly, the two opinion questions about the financial aid profession and the director's career choice were not related significantly to any variable in the analysis. The two questions asked directors concerning the profession of financial aid were: 1) whether the experience gained in financial aid administration was excellent preparation for other types of college administration; and 2) whether financial aid as a full-time job was sufficiently satisfying to be a life-time career for them. An overwhelming percentage of directors agreed with the first statement and a lesser number, but still a substantial majority, agreed with the second. When asked whether they planned to continue as financial aid director as a career choice, a surprising 62 per cent of respondents said they did. Only 15 per cent of the directors said no and 23 per cent were undecided.

### RECOMMENDATIONS

The study attempted to learn selected information about the position of the financial aid director in his own institution. This study was only a beginning. Much more research needs to be done.

Clarence Casazza's study in 1970 found that 80 per cent of aid directors in institutions enrolling over 10,000 students had chosen to remain in financial aid as a career. This study supported that fact, not only for the largest institutions, but for all sizes of institutions in the Midwest.

Warren Willingham's research in 1970 in the western states and O. Wayne Chamber's 1972 study in the southern states showed that the least professional aid directors came from small, private institutions with small financial aid programs. This study showed that directors from such institutions also rank low in importance in their institutions, at least in the Midwest.

Further research needs to be done on the position of the aid director in his institution. This study was limited to one section of the country, the eleven states that make up the Midwest Association of Student Financial Aid Administrators. To complete the picture, of course, the study would need to be repeated in other areas of the country. It was also limited to baccalaureate and baccalaureate and graduate degree granting institutions. The position of the aid director in the two-year institutions needs to be explored. There is also a new type of institution entering the financial aid

field, the proprietary institution. Much research needs to be undertaken on these "for profit" institutions and their administration of financial aid. Since the federal financial aid legislation makes aid funds now available to these institutions, aid directors at these institutions must also be carefully studied.

Finally, this study was limited to the director of financial aid, the individual who has the responsibility of administering the student financial aid programs for his institution. The profession has grown in the last decade and a half. In many institutions, especially the larger ones, the director has an assistant or assistants to help him administer the aid program. Research needs to be done on these professional members of the financial aid field.

Most important of all, however, more research needs to be done on those directors identified in this study as the high group. What differentiates them from the other two groups? This study has laid the ground work for identifying aid directors holding important positions in their institutions. We must, however, know more about them. What kind of skills do they possess that may account for their importance? This writer would suggest that some selected areas of

investigation might be their administrative skills, managerial skills, and skills in communication. Certainly, skills in interpersonal relationships are important for aid directors. Finally, it may be important to test their motivation, the factors that drive them to excel in their profession.

An experimental study might also be done to compare further the high group directors with the low group. Their effectiveness in their own institutions might be tested, as it is perceived by the students they serve. The high directors were ranked as high by criteria that relate to their prestige in their institutions. It might be beneficial to see if this prestige correlates with effectiveness in dealing with students.

Further research on directors of financial aid can have important implications for the training of future aid directors. It certainly can be of importance to institutions of higher education. The aid director is a vital part of his institution. He controls an expense budget for his institution that is often second only to that of instructional services. Clearly, it is important that colleges and universities know what kind of individuals function best as aid directors, what kind of expertise to look for in aid



directors.

Finally, further research on financial aid directors is vitally important for higher education in general. Assuming that federal funds for student aid continue to be channeled to students through the individual colleges and universities, it will continue to be the aid director who administers those funds. The federal government and those concerned with higher education must be convinced that these funds will be administered skillfully to benefit the greatest number of students, as well as the institutions themselves.

The financial aid director is a unique student services officer in higher education. His position has been one of great importance to a great many students. His office, however, was created by forces external to higher education. It came into being as a result of the National Defense Education Act of 1958. It has grown in importance as a result of subsequent federal legislation. It cannot help but be influenced by the future of these programs.

At this writing, the future of the financial aid profession is extremely uncertain. Although the Educational Amendments Act of 1972 renewed existing federal programs of financial aid and created new ones, the Executive Branch of

the federal government has attempted to withhold funding for many of these programs. There are attempts to eliminate many of the traditional programs of student aid and take an approach that would make the position of financial aid director unnecessary. This could mean that the individual student might be dealing directly with an agency of the federal government for his support, a local bank, or a department of the state government.

If that should happen, higher education would lose a valuable student services officer. As this study has shown, the financial aid director has gained in professional stature and influence within his institution. There is no reason to suspect, given the continuation and growth of existing aid programs, that he will not continue to grow and become an even more valuable member of the higher education profession.

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## APPENDIX A

## FINANCIAL AID QUESTIONNAIRE

## Instructions:

This questionnaire should be completed by the Director of Financial Aid or by the administrator who has the major responsibility for the administration of financial aid.

1. Name of Institution\_\_\_\_\_

2. Your Age:\_\_\_\_\_

3. Sex:\_\_\_\_\_Male \_\_\_\_\_Female

4. What is the size of your institution? (Use total enrollment figures. If your institution is multicampus, give only the total enrollment of your particular campus.)

\_\_\_\_\_Under 1,000 students

\_\_\_\_\_1,000 to 2,499 students

\_\_\_\_\_2,500 to 4,999 students

\_\_\_\_\_5,000 to 9,999 students

\_\_\_\_\_10,000 to 14,999 students

\_\_\_\_\_15,000 to 24,999 students

\_\_\_\_\_25,000 and over

5. Type of institution:

\_\_\_\_\_2 year or less than 4 year (not granting baccalaureate degree)

\_\_\_\_\_Baccalaureate degree granting only

\_\_\_\_\_Baccalaureate and graduate or professional degree granting

\_\_\_\_\_Graduate or professional degree granting only

\_\_\_\_\_Other, please specify\_\_\_\_\_

6. Method of control:

\_\_\_\_\_Private

\_\_\_\_\_Public



7. What is your full title? \_\_\_\_\_
8. What is your immediate supervisor's title? \_\_\_\_\_
9. How many administrative positions in the organizational structure are between you and the president of your institution?  
(Do not include the president.)
- \_\_\_\_\_None (I report directly to the president)
- \_\_\_\_\_One \_\_\_\_\_Two \_\_\_\_\_Three \_\_\_\_\_Four or more
10. Approximately what part of your working week is devoted to financial aid? (If it varies, estimate for the entire year.)
- \_\_\_\_\_100% of my time
- \_\_\_\_\_70% to 99% of my time
- \_\_\_\_\_30% to 69% of my time
- \_\_\_\_\_Less than 30% of my time
11. How long have you held your current position as chief administrator of financial aid?
- \_\_\_\_\_This is my first year
- \_\_\_\_\_One to three years
- \_\_\_\_\_Three to five years
- \_\_\_\_\_Five to ten years
- \_\_\_\_\_Ten years or longer
12. How many years have you worked in financial aid, including the amount of time in your present job?
- \_\_\_\_\_This is my first year
- \_\_\_\_\_One to three years
- \_\_\_\_\_Three to five years
- \_\_\_\_\_Five to ten years
- \_\_\_\_\_Ten years or longer

13. How many years have you worked at your present institution?

\_\_\_\_\_This is my first year

\_\_\_\_\_One to three years

\_\_\_\_\_Three to five years

\_\_\_\_\_Five to ten years

\_\_\_\_\_Ten years or longer

14. How many years have you worked in an institution of higher education, including the amount of time in your present institution?

\_\_\_\_\_This is my first year

\_\_\_\_\_One to three years

\_\_\_\_\_Three to five years

\_\_\_\_\_Five to ten years

\_\_\_\_\_Ten years or longer

15. What is your educational background? Please respond to all items that apply.

<u>Education</u>	<u>Type of Degree</u>	<u>Field of Specialization</u>
_____Have a doctorate	_____	_____
_____Am in a doctoral program	_____	_____
_____Have a master's degree	_____	_____
_____Am in a master's program	_____	_____
_____Have a baccalaureate degree	_____	_____
_____Do not have a baccalaureate degree		
_____Other, please specify_____		

16. Before entering the financial aid field, how much formal training did you have in financial aid administration? Check the item or items that apply.

\_\_\_\_\_Had an internship in a financial aid office as part of my degree program

☐ Had some exposure to financial aid as part of my degree program

☐ Had no formal training, but attended at least one workshop on financial aid

☐ Received no training in financial aid prior to employment as an aid officer

☐ Other, please specify \_\_\_\_\_

17. After entering the financial aid field what kind of on-the-job training did you receive? Check the item or items that apply.

☐ Had an internship in a financial aid office as part of my degree program

☐ Had some exposure to financial aid as part of my degree program

☐ Had no formal training, but attended several workshops or seminars on financial aid

☐ Attended an occasional seminar or workshop on financial aid

☐ Attended only one seminar or workshop on financial aid

☐ Learned the job on my own

☐ Other, please specify \_\_\_\_\_

18. Have you ever published books on financial aid?

☐ Frequently published

☐ Occasionally published

☐ Published on one occasion

☐ Have never published

19. Have you ever published articles on financial aid?

☐ Frequently published

☐ Occasionally published

☐ Published on one occasion

☐ Have never published

20. Have you participated in a leadership or teaching capacity in a financial aid seminar or workshop on a state, regional, national basis or in connection with an institution of higher education?
- ☐ Frequently
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ On one occasion
- ☐ Never
21. Of what professional, educational organizations are you a member?
- ☐ Am not a member of any professional, educational organization
- ☐ State financial aid organization
- ☐ Regional financial aid organization
- ☐ National financial aid organization
- ☐ National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA)
- ☐ American College Personnel Association (ACPA)
- ☐ Other, please specify \_\_\_\_\_
22. In what professional, educational organization do you hold office?
- ☐ Do not hold nor have nor held office in any professional, educational organization
- ☐ Hold office or have held office in a state financial aid organization
- ☐ Hold office or have held office in a regional financial aid organization
- ☐ Hold office or have held office in the national financial aid organization
- ☐ Hold office or have held office in another professional, educational organization (specify the organization)
- \_\_\_\_\_

23. What was your yearly salary for the 1971-72 academic year? (If this is your first year in your present job, estimate as best you can your predecessor's 1971-72 salary.)

<input type="checkbox"/> Under \$8,000	<input type="checkbox"/> \$14,000 to \$15,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$8,000 to \$9,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$16,000 to \$17,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$10,000 to \$11,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$18,000 to \$19,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$12,000 to \$13,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$20,000 and over

24. Is the person who is director of financial aid at your institution eligible for faculty rank?

☐ Yes  
☐ No  
☐ Do not know  
☐ Has not been determined  
☐ Other, please specify \_\_\_\_\_

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25. Is the person who is director of financial aid at your institution eligible for tenure as director of financial aid?

☐ Yes  
☐ No  
☐ Do not know  
☐ Has not been determined  
☐ Other, please specify \_\_\_\_\_

---

26. What percentage of the total operational budget of your institution is allocated to the financial aid office?

☐ Percentage  
☐ Do not know

27. As financial aid director do you participate in the formulation of financial aid policy at your institution?

☐ Yes  
☐ No

28. If you responded yes to the previous question, check the item or items that apply.

☐ Am chairman of the financial aid committee

☐ Am a voting member of the financial aid committee

☐ Am a non-voting member of the financial aid committee

☐ Am not a member of the financial aid committee, but have input into the committee

☐ Our institution does not have a committee on financial aid, but I do participate in policy formulation

☐ Other, please specify \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

29. As financial aid director, do you participate in the formulation of policy in other areas of your institution?

☐ Yes

☐ No

If you responded yes, specify the area or areas and the degree of participation (e.g. chairman, voting member, non voting member, etc.)

area of participation	degree of participation
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

30. The following questions solicit your opinion. Indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

Strongly   Moderately   Moderately   Strongly   No  
Agree   Agree   Disagree   Disagree   Opinion

- a. I have enough authority to do the job of financial aid director effectively.
- b. I have a large enough role in financial aid policy formulation in my institution.
- c. My superiors have a clear picture of the kind of job I am doing in financial aid administration.
- d. I have a large enough role in policy formulation in other matters in my institution.
- e. I am recognized by others in my institution as holding an important administrative position.
- f. My place in the administrative structure of my institution is adequate.
- g. In comparison to the salaries of others in my institution, my salary is adequate.

Strongly   Moderately   Moderately   Strongly   No  
Agree   Agree   Disagree   Disagree   Opinion

h. The experience gained in financial aid administration is excellent preparation for other types of college administration.

i. Financial aid work as a full-time job is sufficiently satisfying to be a life-time career for me.

31. Regardless of your response to 30 i, please answer the following questions:

a. Do you plan to continue as a financial aid director as a career choice?

\_\_\_\_ Yes

\_\_\_\_ No

\_\_\_\_ Undecided

b. If you did not answer yes to the above, what is your long term goal?

\_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_

Do you wish a copy of the results:

\_\_\_\_ Yes      \_\_\_\_ No



APPENDIX B

## Letter Voicing MASFAA's Support of Study

Dear Director of Financial Aids:

The Midwest Association of Student Financial Aid Administrators has attempted for some time to encourage research in the field of financial aids. Some research is now being undertaken, but much more needs to be done. There is much that we need to know about our profession, about the awarding of aid, the recipients of aid and especially about the financial aid officers themselves.

For this reason I urge you to cooperate in this research project. It is being conducted by Mr. James Barry, a doctoral candidate at Loyola University in Chicago. His research project has the encouragement and full support of MASFAA.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Robert L. Franklin,  
President, MASFAA

APPENDIX C

## Questionnaire Cover Letter

July 19, 1972

Dear Financial Aid Director:

I know there are many demands on your time these days. I hope, however, that you can and will take a few minutes to reply to this questionnaire and mail your responses back to me in the enclosed envelope as soon as possible.

The questionnaire is easy to answer. It asks for mostly facts that should be readily available to you. Financial aid directors who have responded to the questionnaire indicated a response time averaging seventeen minutes.

This research is being conducted as part of my doctoral dissertation. Only group data will be published. Individual responses will be treated with proper confidentiality. The identity of your institution is asked only for purposes of follow-up and as a cross-reference for some items.

You have been selected as part of a scientifically established random sample. Your response represents a number of other aid directors. It is important, therefore, to the success of the research that you respond.

Thank you for your cooperation. If you are interested in the results of this research, I will be happy to send them to you when they are available.

Sincerely,

James F. Barry  
Associate Dean of Students

## APPENDIX D

## Follow-up Letter

September, 1972

Dear Financial Aid Director:

Some time ago I mailed a questionnaire to you requesting your assistance in the research I am conducting as a part of my doctoral dissertation at Loyola University in Chicago.

As my original letter indicated, this research has the approval and encouragement of the Midwest Association of Financial Aid Administrators.

Perhaps you never received my original request or perhaps it was just one of those requests you were not able to get to at this time of the year. May I ask that you take a few minutes of your time now to fill out the enclosed questionnaire and mail it back to me at your earliest convenience. Your response is most important for the success of the research since you are part of a scientifically selected random sample.

Thank you for your cooperation. I will be happy to send you the results of my research, if you are interested.

Sincerely,

James F. Barry  
Associate Dean of Students

## APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by James F. Barry has been read and approved by the following committee:

Dr. John P. Eddy, Associate Professor,  
Guidance and Counseling

Dr. John A. Wellington, Professor and  
Chairman, Guidance and Counseling

Dr. Jack Kavanagh, Assistant Professor,  
Educational Foundations

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is, therefore, accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

May 17, 1974  
date

John P. Eddy  
Director's signature